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Editor's Page

THE REPORT ON AMERICAN HISTORY

THE REPORT of the Committee on American History in the Schools and Colleges of the American Historical Association, the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, and the National Council for the Social Studies, was presented by the Director of the Committee, Edgar B. Wesley, at a joint meeting of the three sponsoring organizations at Columbia University on December 30. The Report has since been published.¹

The Preface notes that the war has caused a re-examination of American history teaching and its purposes. This report deals not with the whole field of history or social studies but primarily with the teaching of American history. It does not, as the preface also notes, consider problems of measurement, details of organization of materials, or classroom methods.

WHAT ABOUT THE TIMES CHARGES?

NO MENTION is made in the Report of the attack on American history teaching sponsored during the past twenty months by the *New York Times*: of the assertions, publicized in the *Times* and elsewhere, that young Americans do not know American history and are not even required to study it in the schools and colleges; of the charges, to which the *Times* has extended hospitality, that educators have substituted for American history something new, called "social studies," that is subversive of American traditions and ideals; of the campaign, carried on in the *Times* and elsewhere, for state laws and college regulations requiring more courses in American history; and of the efforts, reflected in the *New York Times* "Test," to drive us back to the selection of facts and to the interpretations taught a generation or more ago—at the expense of attention to recent history,

economic and social development, and perhaps to the history of the rest of the world.

The Report provides specific and vigorous, though unavowed, responses to each of these four phases of the *Times* campaign, and supports the paper in none of them.

Do Americans know their own history? In the first chapter of the Report the committee analyzes the results of a test administered to selected groups of adults and to representative samplings of college and high school students, and concludes:

If by knowing history one means the ability to recall dates, names, and specific events, the answer is fairly clear: Americans in general do not know this kind of history. If by knowing history one means the understanding of trends and movements, the appreciation of past events and persons, and the ability to see a connection between the experience of the country and the experience of the individual, the answer is that Americans in general do know a reasonable amount of American history (p. 1).

Pointing out that specific facts are forgotten sooner than applications, generalizations, and relationships, the Committee notes that facts are usually forgotten when they cease to be useful; that facts must be learned and used in courses, but that "the retention of facts is not the exponent of historical power." The Committee believes that "Americans must be repeatedly exposed to their own history in school, in college, and adult life if they are to know it and use it," but that there is no magic formula by which a body of factual data can be so taught that it will be permanently remembered.

Do young Americans study American history? This question is answered in Chapter III, "American History in the Classroom." After surveying the evidence from state laws, regulations of state departments of education, city courses of study, and special studies of selected areas, states, and periods, the Report finds that "the number of years in which American history is given ranges from 3 to 6, and that Grades V, VIII, and XI are the ones in which American history most frequently appears" (p. 34).

¹ *American History and Schools and Colleges*, New York: Macmillan, 1944. Pp. xiv, 148 : \$1.25.

In the colleges, "every institution gives a course in American history"; the range in the number of American history offerings is from 6 to 93 in colleges and universities, from 4 to 45 in teachers colleges. The Committee's sampling showed 14.4 percent of college student bodies enrolled in American history courses as against the 9.3 percent reported in the *New York Times* survey. Like the *Times* survey, the Committee considers only enrollments in history, excluding related areas of government, economics, sociology, and literature which both draw upon and reinforce history.

In summarizing the conclusions on enrollments the Report states:

(1) The number of courses in American history in the schools and colleges is sufficient. If the results are unsatisfactory the remedy is not the multiplication of courses. The Committee, however, sees no cause for discouragement over either the enrollment or the results. (2) Enrollment in American history courses in elementary and junior high school approaches 100 percent of the students in attendance. (3) Enrollment in American history courses in senior high school is so high that the Committee sees no need to urge any change in programs at this level. (4) The percentage of college students who study American history is small. The Committee believes that it should be raised, and proposes (Chapter VII) a plan which it believes is designed to effect this result (p. 49).

Are the Social Studies undermining American history? Taking account of the misunderstanding and misuse of the expression "social studies," and of the fact that it has been used "as a label for contemporary problems, as a term implying socialistic or reformist purposes, as relating to social service and social welfare, as an antonym to history, and as a label for a method of teaching," the Committee comments flatly that "these uses of the term are erroneous." The social studies are a group of related subjects—history, geography, civics, economics, sociology—all concerned with human beings and their interrelationships.

Have other social studies been pushing American history out of the schools? The Report is explicit: American history has made steady gains both in time allotment and in absolute and relative enrollment, in addition to increased attention in other social studies courses. In conclusion:

(1) The aggregate time devoted to the social studies is on the increase;

(2) European history at the high-school level has suffered a loss in time allotment, but not necessarily in enrollment; and

(3) American history has not only maintained its status but has actually received increased attention in the middle grades, at the junior-high school level, in the senior high school, and in college (p. 60 f.).

While stoutly maintaining the need for the continued predominance of American history in the social studies program, the Report endorses the teaching of the other social studies, recommends that all high school students take a course in world history, and asserts that "the history of the United States cannot be fully understood without knowledge of the history of other countries" (p. 63). It further makes clear that both new evidence and reinterpretations and new developments and interests in our society have necessitated changes in American history courses, bringing attention to "economic developments, social movements, cultural activities, and the daily life of the people," bringing recognition of "the hemispheric approach and the interdependence of cultures and peoples," and bringing stress on "the ideals and traditions of democracy" in far more than the political aspects of democracy. The Committee endorses such broadening of scope.

Do we need more laws? The Committee finds that American history is offered and studied whether or not state laws set up requirements. It is prescribed by state departments of education in twenty-five states where no law requires it, but cities (and two states) offer American history even though no state requirement of any kind exists. Neither American history nor other social studies courses owe their introduction to laws; they are taught far more than laws require, and even when no statutory requirement exists.

The Committee is caustic in its comments on much existing legislation. Some of it is vague and impracticable; some that is more definite can readily be evaded. Some is unduly restrictive and defeats its own purpose. The public and groups within the public have a right to be interested in the schools; legislatures have the right, even the duty, to state educational purposes. But since the achievement of purposes depends upon teachers who must, to be effective, be free to apply their professional competence, it is "educational folly" to specify curricular content by law. "Legislators are untrained and ill prepared to write programs for the schools" (p. 116), and pressure groups cannot be relied upon to develop a consistent and balanced program. "State legislatures should not write the social studies curriculum; it should be made by social studies teachers, educational experts, and professors of the social sciences" (p. 121).

Nor does the Committee endorse demands for increased college requirements. "The crying need in American history [in colleges] is not for more

requirements but for better teaching" (p. 93).

The charges for which the *Times* made itself the sounding board, and which echoed through many other publications, were carefully investigated by the Committee and are discredited in the Report. The demand for laws and requirements is rejected as both unnecessary and unsound. These major services to the educational profession and the cause of sound teaching of American history will scarcely be overlooked even though the Report, which the *Times* now describes as "an outgrowth" of its survey of last April, never mentions the charges, the prescriptions, or their sources. Reassured and grateful, educators can turn to the constructive proposals of the Committee for the improvement of American history teaching.

TOWARD BETTER HISTORY TEACHING

WEAKNESSES in the present American history courses are not glossed over in the Report. Outright duplication, or unplanned overlapping, in American history courses at successive levels is blamed for the lessening or destruction of interest, for failure to learn and remember, and for waste of the pupil's time. Catalogic, unselective courses are condemned as failing to bring out significance in trends, movements, and generalizations. The traditional college survey is sharply criticized as too frequently failing to live up to its pretensions and opportunities, as frequently being inferior to the senior high school course, lacking freshness and vitality, falling victim too often to instructors with no interest in or aptitude for teaching or with a feeling that teaching is "an intrusion on [their] research."

Conscious of administrative difficulties in schedule making, of poor salaries and heavy teaching loads, of inadequate libraries and equipment, of the too frequent willingness of administrators to assign untrained teachers to social studies classes, the Committee "hopes to arouse the public, legislatures, certification agencies, teacher training institutions, school boards, school administrators, and teachers to a realization of the need for improvement in the quality of social studies teaching" (p. 95).

Careful selection, better training, adequate salaries, freedom from restrictive or punitive legislation, and decided stiffening of certification requirements and policies are recommended. Specific, constructive, and practicable suggestions are also made for improved undergraduate training, for maintaining and increasing the

competence of teachers in service, and for practical and stimulating graduate work for teachers. The recommendations of the Committee merit the attention of all who teach, who train teachers, or who administer educational institutions.

ORGANIZATION OF COURSES

SINCE the Committee recommends that American history should continue to be studied in elementary and secondary schools three times by all pupils, but condemns the unplanned repetition that has frequently resulted in poor learning and dislike for history, it is faced with the need for suggesting a better organization. The differentiation for the three school levels, and for the college level which is also considered, is made in terms of content, chronology, and study skills.

The proposals merit careful study and will require full discussion and some classroom experimentation. The Committee presents recommendations for minimum content rather than a complete and definitive program. Local and regional adaptations and enrichment, and flexibility in organization by "units, topics, projects, or any other feasible plan," are allowed for. The lists of specific topics and skills are presented as recommended emphases; the lists of dates are called "representative."

The details of these recommendations should be studied in the Report itself. So far as content is concerned, the proposals for the middle grades stress "How People Live" especially in the period 1492-1789; that for junior high school "The Building of a Nation" in the period 1776-1876; that for senior high school "A Democratic Nation in a World Setting" since 1865. It should be noted that these recommendations are for chief emphasis, not exclusive attention.

The Committee expresses some apprehension lest the specific suggestions be used as a substitute for a complete program or made the basis for drill to the neglect of understanding and significance. At the same time, however, it suggests that some uniformity in the basic pattern at successive levels has substantial merits.

The Committee anticipates that if the quality of history teaching in the schools is improved, the traditional college survey will have to be modified extensively. The Report sketches a possible course in American Civilization, involving wide reading and the use of critical skills. The efforts in some colleges to develop either a course in American Civilization or in American history with attention to its hemispheric or world setting are commended.

BY WAY OF COMMENT

CONVINCED that "American history is now taught with sufficient frequency" and that "Improvement in quality rather than increase in quantity should be the major concern of educators and the public," the Committee has accepted its own challenge realistically and courageously. It has provided teachers, curriculum makers, administrators, teacher-training institutions, and certification bureaus with recommendations that are specific and practicable. It has done what the Commission on the Social Studies was unable to do: advance proposals—so far at least as American history is concerned—for a minimum program. It has articulated, for the first time, a series of courses for elementary schools, secondary schools, and colleges, giving attention as well to the related obligations of institutions engaged in teacher training and to the dual obligations of institutions that sponsor research.

The Report quietly ignores the longstanding, fundamentally illogical, and wholly disastrous breach between scholars and educators, insisting that scholarship is a concern of the schools and good teaching a concern of colleges and universities. It recognizes the interests of the public in the schools, but draws a line between the responsibility of legislators for establishing policies and the responsibility and freedom of professional educators for making policies effective. The quality of the Report itself demonstrates that program making in the schools is a task for experts, requiring something more than enthusiasms or apprehensions, impressions or aspirations, or even good intentions and sincere patriotism.

The Committee deserves the thanks of historians, the teaching profession, and the public for discharging its assignment with distinction, and the Report merits the careful consideration which its authors request for it.

SUCH consideration will not result in approval of all the recommendations by all readers. Some critics will not like the distribution of content among the various grade levels, or the suggestions for the college course. Some Progressives in education will object that the curriculum proposals start with subject matter rather than an analysis of the needs of children and youth. Neither pronounced nationalists nor pronounced internationalists will be content with the range of content and indicated emphases.

The Committee has registered its awareness of

individual differences, but in excluding consideration of classroom methods has failed to point out that one of the most serious handicaps to effective teaching is the present necessity, in most classes, for teaching at one and the same time gifted pupils, "average" pupils, and pupils who cannot read and whose desire or willingness to learn is either non-existent or undeveloped.

Some other limitations in the scope of the Report may be noted. In dealing with American history alone it fails to fit that history into the framework of a total social studies program. World history and the other social studies courses are warmly endorsed and their close relationship to American history noted, but when they are taught and what they include make a difference in the content and organization of American history courses. Are, for example, the existing deficiencies in geography to be overcome by introducing a new high school course, or by building more geography into history and other social studies courses? And what is to be the content of junior high school courses in civics and of twelfth-grade Problems of Democracy? Is the latter, especially, to overlap eleventh-grade American history, or are the two courses to be carefully articulated? What is to be the relation of college history to college social science? These and other questions are now left to state or local authorities and to individual colleges without recommendation.

Again, how are the other Americas to be treated in our American history courses? Canada, but not Central or South America, is included in the recommended minimum for the intermediate grades. Neither Canada nor Latin America figures in that for junior high school. The "International Influence and Responsibilities of the United States" is one of the six topics suggested for senior high school, and Bolívar and San Martín are included in the related list of representative persons. Would it not be possible and desirable, however, before the end of the third cycle of American history, to give greater attention to developments in the other Americas that parallel or contrast with those in the United States?

These are among the questions that need to be considered as educators discharge their duty to read the Report, to consider its recommendations, and to implement a promising and much-needed effort to improve the quality of American history teaching as the core of our program of education in democratic citizenship.

ERLING M. HUNT

Tensions in Race Relations

Harry J. Walker

THE sudden outbreak of race conflict in cities of the United States during the present war period is symptomatic of basic, underlying tensions which have been heightened by the crisis of war. The existence of these tensions in Negro-white relations is indicative of fundamental changes in the nature of race adjustment.

SEGREGATION

ONE of the chief factors responsible for the changes occurring in the adjustment between the races has been the character of the development of the social structure of the segregated Negro communities. As R. E. Park has pointed out, there is now a Negro world inside of which individual Negroes have an opportunity to rise in social status.¹ Every advance in education, wealth, and affluence has only served to bring into sharper focus the limitations placed upon the Negro by the American social order. Segregation, which in a sense constituted a means of minimizing race conflict, has become the basis for the organization of the Negro group. As solidarity in the Negro group has been achieved, its more articulate members have given voice to the collective aims and aspirations of Negroes. Segregation, far from comprising a means of forestalling conflict, has now come to be regarded as a means of effectively maintaining an unequal allotment of the rights, privileges, and social facilities of society.

Another aspect of this development is observed in the fact that where Negroes have assumed new roles as a consequence of this social development, new conceptions of their status arise. What is important here is that the emergence of a Negro social world has enabled many Negroes to

This analysis of long-range and wartime factors in the changing relation of Negroes and whites was presented at the Third Annual Conference for Teachers of the Social Sciences in Secondary Schools and Junior Colleges, held at the University of Chicago last July. The author is a former member of the faculty of Howard University.

achieve a higher status in professional, academic, and business life.

There is now a Negro business organization which is dependent almost entirely upon Negro patronage. This development, together with the formation of separate schools and the movement of Negroes into federal and local governmental agencies, has provided the economic and cultural basis for the rise of white-collar workers, capitalists, professionals, and clerical workers who comprise the Negro upper classes. These people naturally adopt new forms of behavior which express new sentiments.

Members of the Negro working class have not been unaffected by this development. Where formerly they could look up only to whites who occupied a superior position in the social order, they now view the rise of Negroes to positions of prestige and status with pride. All of this is evidence of the fact that the Negro is no longer content with his traditional place in the social order.

POPULATION SHIFTS

RACE conflict arises under conditions of change in the traditional social order. Racial animosities are most intense at those points where traditional relationships are breaking down. In this connection R. E. Park has also stated: "It is when the Negro invades a new region that race riots occur; it is when he seeks a new place in a new occupation or a new profession that he meets the most vigorous opposition."²

The war crisis, precisely because it produces marked changes in the relationships between whites and Negroes, has led to heightened racial tensions and conflict. The most important factor contributing to changes in Negro-white relationships is the shuffling of populations, both white

¹ Bertram W. Doyle, *The Etiquette of Race Relations in the South* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1937); see introduction by R. E. Park.

² R. E. Park, "The Bases of Race Prejudice," *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, November, 1928.

and Negro. Elements of both populations are being brought together from areas which differ widely in their pattern of race relations. As a result of the urgent demands of war industry, there has been a shifting of both white and Negro populations to urban centers. Negroes have been drawn into occupations and industries for which there has been little precedent. The concentration of population in industrial centers has meant an increasing pressure on housing and recreation facilities for both white and Negroes. Crowded conditions of transportation have thrown members of the two groups together in situations which give rise to racial friction.

EMPHASIS ON DEMOCRACY

ANOTHER factor of extreme importance in this connection is the reaction of Negroes to the wartime emphasis, through the press and the radio, upon democracy with its philosophy of freedom for all minorities. Negroes, consequently, are making vigorous claims for equal rights and equal treatment.

The two groups, thus, stand opposed. On the Negro side, complex changes in the social organization of the Negro community have produced new interests and aspirations in Negro life. This is reflected in both sporadic and organized efforts to acquire a greater participation in the economic and political life of the nation. As a consequence of the present emphasis upon democratic rights, there is a growing determination on the part of Negroes to break down the barriers to a fuller participation in the affairs of the nation. This determination is expressed in the insistent demands for equal consideration in securing jobs, more adequate housing, and better recreational facilities. It finds expression in the persistent criticism leveled at the officials of the Army and Navy regarding discriminatory practices and the subjection of Negro soldiers to brutal treatment in Southern camps.

On the white side, these demands are recognized as a threat to the interests and welfare of the white population. Whites view these efforts of Negroes as an invasion of long-established prerogatives and vested interests. This is reflected in their intentions and determination to preserve the better jobs, exclusive residential areas, and better public facilities against the encroachment of Negroes. What is really significant is that—beyond these manifestations of conflicting interest—there is the failure of white people to recognize and adjust to changes in the attitudes and aspirations of Negroes.

These factors make understandable the bitterness involved in the issues of employment, industrial training, and housing for Negroes. They reveal the nature of the clashes on the issue of segregation; the insistence by whites that Negroes observe the traditional social etiquette; the continued assertion of Negroes of their rights and expectations and disappointments; the indisposition of both to compromise; the frequency of conflict.

EMPLOYMENT AND LABOR POLICIES³

ONE of the most important points of tension in race relations is found in industrial employment and training. It is a well-known fact that during the depression Negroes were the first to lose their jobs. And with the coming of the wartime boom in industry, they were in many plants the last to be hired, if they were hired at all. Some industries, without precedents for utilizing Negro labor, have added them to the force without difficulty. In other plants stiff opposition to the inclusion of Negro workers was met both on the part of employers and unions. In some industries which have employed Negroes there has developed friction over the conditions under which they were employed and the policy of up-grading them.

Despite the executive order prohibiting racial discrimination in employment in war industries, Negroes comprise only a small percentage of replacements. During the third quarter of 1941, when placements through the U. S. Employment Service reached the highest peak, Negroes and other non-whites comprised only three per cent of the placements in twenty large war industries. Also they were less than three per cent of the referrals for pre-employment training courses. They are at present about one per cent of the total in these pre-employment and refresher courses. There are numerous cases on record which show the extent of racial discrimination in industrial employment. For example, in one city with two large shipbuilding concerns, there were until very recently nation-wide requests for shipyard workers. Yet the U.S. Employment Service reported that there were 6,000 Negro workers available in the active file of the Employment Service in that city.

Discrimination against Negroes in industrial

³ The factual material for the remainder of this paper was taken from "A Preliminary Report on the Survey of Racial Tensions" (unpublished), by Charles S. Johnson, and Associates, Fisk University, November, 1942.

employment, especially above the unskilled level, has existed in the United States for a long time. It is not surprising, then, that this should constitute one of the areas of acute tension in race relations. Negroes are aware of the irony of a situation which asks of them extreme sacrifices, but on terms of subordination to white people, and yet denies them the opportunity to earn a living. The bitterness of the situation becomes all the more apparent in the face of the frequent pronouncements that this is a war for freedom and democratic rights. The chief points at which tension exists in this area may be listed as follows: (1) Discrimination in hiring practice; (2) Discrimination in industrial training; (3) Discrimination in promoting or up-grading Negroes; (4) Discrimination in wages and working conditions; and (5) Racial restrictions upon union membership.

Although these forms of discrimination are common to all geographical regions, there are variations in the manner and degree of their application. It is worth noting that the most extreme forms are not always found in the South. In the South, for example, Negro workers are frequently used, although used inadequately in terms of their number, training, and experience. In other regions of the country they are frequently not used at all.

As regards discrimination in the hiring of Negro workers, the most prevalent pattern in the South is one of restricted or limited use of Negro workers. At the Birmingham hearings of the President's Fair Employment Practices Committee all of the complaints registered were based upon restricted inclusion of Negroes. Conditions approximating total exclusion were found in the newer war industries, such as the Nashville branch of the Vultee Aircraft, Incorporated. In this plant Negroes were employed as sweepers and janitors and comprised one-half of one per cent of a total working force of several thousands. Similarly, in the rejuvenated Shipbuilding Corporation of Chicksaw, Alabama, there were twenty-two Negro porters in a working force of about 10,000.

The reasons for including Negroes on a restricted basis reflected a mixture of fears, beliefs, economic arguments, and attempts to shift responsibility. Three obstacles to the employment of Negroes were given by the personnel manager of the Vultee. These were: (1) opposition of the union, (2) the lack of trained Negroes, and (3) the layout of the plant. In regard to the latter it was pointed out that all departments in the

plant were established under one roof, and all available machinery was in operation. Consequently, it was not possible to set up a "separate" production unit manned by Negroes. It was also brought out in the hearings of the Fair Employment Practices Committee that the union did not control all of the hiring in the plant. The union representative, while admitting that Negroes were not admitted to full membership, stated there would be no opposition on the part of the union if the company wanted to hire some Negroes. The personnel manager, however, contended that the introduction of Negroes into existing departments would result in "certain difficulties in labor and race relations in the plant and possibly a walk-out on the part of white employees."

THE Midwest may be taken as one of the examples of serious racial tension in industry in the North. Racial tension in industry was one of the important factors in the recent racial violence in Detroit.

This region is significantly different from the South with regard to discrimination in hiring practices. There are in this region a considerable number of large establishments which do not use Negroes in any capacity. In the South Negroes were almost always included but always in custodial or unskilled labor categories.

The Illinois State Commission on the Condition of Urban Colored Population conducted a survey of 358 defense firms in Chicago and 115 in other parts of the state. Of the 146 which replied to a questionnaire, 95, or two-thirds, reported that they employed no Negroes. In the 51 firms reporting the use of Negro labor, Negroes were only 3.6 per cent of the total working force.

In Detroit, non-whites were 21.5 per cent of the active files of the State Employment Service in July, 1942. Negroes were only 5.4 per cent of the workers in 270 war industries, and only 12.6 per cent of the placements of the State Employment Service.

Discriminatory practices in hiring in this region are often a result of frank hostility on the part of the management to certain minority groups, especially the Negro group. More frequently employers ascribe individual traits to racial groups, traits which make them unsuitable for specific kinds of work. For instance, the personnel manager of the Nordberg Manufacturing Company stated that the company did not employ Negroes because their work required highly

skilled people. The vice-president of this company added that this did not only apply to Negroes, "because anyone who has experience in the mechanical trades knows that there is a concentration of that type of skill in certain nationalities."

These are only a few of the many examples which reveal something of the character of the problem of racial tension in industry. The story is much the same with regard to the other points of tension in industry, discrimination in industrial training, promotion, working conditions, and union membership. Limitations of space prevent their full consideration here.

HOUSING

ANOTHER point of racial tension, which can be given only brief consideration, is the inadequacy of housing. The housing situation for Negroes has always been marginal. Thus, many present areas of conflict in the housing situation are merely evidence of long dissatisfaction, protest, or attempts at remedial action. The war crisis has served to intensify and bring sharply to attention an old problem.

Racial tension in regard to housing seems to be most acute and persistent in those sections of the country where segregation is not firmly institutionalized. The extent of tension in these sections is indicated by the fact that of 54 articles dealing with housing and appearing in eight Negro newspapers over a period of two and one-half months, 42 reported tension in Northern communities. The most important factors showing increased tension in this area are the following:

1. Refusal of real-estate owners to rent or sell property to Negroes in certain areas because of the pressure from native-born and foreign-born residents of the area. Vested interests have controlled and continue to control the housing field.

2. Revival and enforcement of restrictive covenants through court action; threats to and from real-estate brokers to keep Negroes out of residential areas.

3. Resistance to the attempt on the part of housing officials to establish residential patterns of segregation in areas that heretofore had no institutionalized form of segregation.

The problem of housing is somewhat different in the South. The refusal of Southern industries to employ Negro skilled workers in any large numbers in defense plants has created less of a demand for defense housing. This undoubtedly accounts for the relatively small amount of ten-

sion in housing in this section. In most of the instances in which Negroes have been employed in war industry it has been at the unskilled level. Such labor is usually available in the local community. Although there has always been a need for more adequate housing in Southern communities, the situation has not been intensified to the extent that it has in those cities which have had a great influx of migrant workers. Also, in the South, federal funds to be used for housing have been allotted on a racial basis. Thus, the type of tension experienced in Northern areas, where Negroes are fighting for entrance into units being provided, is not experienced in the South where segregation is greatly institutionalized.

TRANSPORTATION

PERSISTENT and frequent reports of tension and conflict in regard to transportation come from Southern communities where the separation of the races is both customary and required by law. Conditions of war have made the operation of customary procedures of segregation on buses and street cars at times impractical. A number of factors have contributed to this situation. There has been a rapid and large increase of population in the urban centers where war industries are located and an over-taxing of transportation facilities. Because of the drafting for military service of many of the more experienced bus drivers, conductors, and other attendants, less experienced workers, many of whom come from rural areas, have been recruited for these jobs. On the whole these new operators have little experience or mental and emotional equipment for dealing with racial situations in public transportation. At the same time there has been an accentuation of Negro resentment against "Jim Crow" regulations. This has resulted from the pressures of discomfort and inconvenience, a new sensitiveness toward segregation generally, and the more frequent confusion of a simple and personal seating problem with the more serious issues of violation of the racial mores.

The usual custom in the South has been for whites to seat themselves from the front toward the back of a carrier and Negroes from the back toward the front. Where there is a barrier of separation (often a sign attached to the back of a seat), it is usually movable to accommodate varying proportions of the races. An ever-present source of friction exists in the adjustment of the marginal area at the point of contact. Every bus

or street-car stop can change the racial ratio and make necessary a readjustment of the seating arrangement. The racial problem of seating, thus, becomes a personal problem for each occupant of the conveyance, and there are many types of personalities seeking transportation. In times of unrest such as at the present, the race issue is in the foreground, and even an otherwise trivial incident can provoke a serious clash.

It is also a custom in the South for Negroes to stand aside and permit white people to enter the street car or bus first. Pressure on the carriers is such that they cannot accommodate all of the white passengers. Thus the only way a Negro can ride is by violating the custom—by pushing and crowding to get on the carrier and back to the rear seats. Conflicts continually arise, and when the police are called in, which is a usual occurrence, Negroes are the ones punished for disorderly conduct. The resentment of Negroes at segregation, and their desperation to get to work in the greater absence of private transportation, make them less tractable. As a result the danger of racial violence is increased.

NEGRO SOLDIERS

BECAUSE of the policy of the Army in training Northern Negroes in Southern camps, many problems have arisen over their lack of accommodation to Southern mores in transportation and other areas of race contact. Southerners commonly interpret the deviate behavior of Northern Negroes as a defiance of the racial orthodoxies and as an intent to destroy them. This brings out all of the brutality of physical violence of which the less secure and less patient and rational of Southern whites are notoriously capable. The situation involving Negro soldiers is an area of contact between the races in which tension is significantly serious.

This problem is most acute in the South in the areas where camps for Negro soldiers are located. To many Southern whites the presence of Negroes in uniforms stirs up deep-seated fears—fears of Negro insubordination. There is, consequently, bitter resentment at any form of behavior on the part of Negroes which can be interpreted as acting out of character. What makes this situation worse is that many Negro soldiers were born and reared in the North and are, therefore, incapable of making a complete adjustment to Southern mores and the racial etiquette. However, the fact that many Southern Negro soldiers have been involved in racial conflict indicates that the status of a soldier is an

important factor in race friction and incidents.

The status of a soldier, which ordinarily confers immunity and inspires sentiments of prestige and pride, brings in the case of the Negro soldier only smoldering resentment and apprehension on the part of white civilians. These sentiments are pointedly reflected in the statement of an official of the State of Georgia. He is reported to have said: "I would rather lose the war than see these damn niggers strutting around here in officers' uniforms." The uniform, arms, and equipment of Negro soldiers seems to present to white people a symbol of authority and a role which they are unwilling to concede to Negroes.

This helps explain the frequency of conflicts between civilian police and Negro soldiers; the beating and killing of Negro soldiers by both civilian police and white military police; the effort of Negro soldiers to retaliate. As a result there is much frustration among Negro soldiers; their morale is low. But the problem does not end here. It has serious repercussions throughout the Negro civilian population all over the country. There is no doubt that racial tension on the Negro's side has been markedly increased by the numerous reports of maltreatment of Negro soldiers appearing in both the white and Negro press. In fact, it has been pointed out by several students of the problem that the treatment of Negro soldiers in the South by white civilian police was a factor in fomenting racial violence in Detroit and Harlem.

THE CHANGING SOCIAL BASE

RACE relations are an aspect of social relations in industry, housing, transportation, and, in fact, all institutional life. The character of Negro-white relations has been undergoing considerable modification since reconstruction days. Industrialization, urbanization, and the emergence of an isolated Negro world with its own developing class structure have meant profound changes in Negro personality, ideologies, and aspirations. War, like other crises, tends to disrupt or continually threaten the traditional social order. The present world conflict, by bringing Negroes and whites together in new relationships and by its emphasis upon freedom for all peoples, has tended to bring into sharp focus the contradictions in the American social order. Racial tension, therefore, must be viewed as a reflection of fundamental changes which are occurring in the social order and which are being intensified under the stress of the disruptive tendencies of war.

Our Immortals in History Textbooks

Samuel Steinberg

IN PERIODS of crisis, it is natural for people to turn to leaders for guidance and inspiration. The human instinct to idolize is at its best, or at its worst, when times are parlous and the soul is being tried. We see this tendency manifested in totalitarian countries, where the whole conception of government revolves around the leader. In democratic countries, representative bodies grant, in times of stress, roving commissions of a quasi-legislative and quasi-judicial nature to the executive. The customary executive functions are multiplied a hundred fold.

What makes leadership more significant than ever before is the fact that modern inventions have eliminated the barriers of time and space. No home, no school, no theatre is free from the leader's dictates or insinuations. The power of an Alexander the Great or of a Napoleon to exact obedience, or even to suppress criticism, was limited by the size of empire and by the time it took for decrees to travel. Certain areas of human interest and conduct were inaccessible to them. Today, the dictator's words flash across the gamut of human experience, from directives on abstract art to the determination of the battle's zero hour. Nor are the radio messages of a Roosevelt and the aerial flight of a Churchill less potent.

There is, however, one essential difference between leadership in democratic states and the leader principle as it operates in totalitarian states: the citizens in a democracy view their leaders not as heroes to be adored but as men whose leadership is sought by free men on the basis of free choice. It is this thought that has led the present writer to raise a number of questions: Are edu-

If history cannot be written in terms of great men alone, neither can history be complete or intelligible without attention to them. Furthermore, the version of history which we present in our classrooms needs the vitality that biography can bring. This protest against the neglect of great Americans in present-day courses comes from the chairman of the social studies department in the Samuel J. Tilden High School, Brooklyn.

cators of tomorrow's citizens teaching the meaning of leadership—what qualifications should be at a premium, how truly to audit the achievements of those who are selected to lead? Are educators, through the proper treatment of the nation's immortals, inspiring the gifted among our youth to enter the ever-widening field of public service? Important questions, these, for the people's choice of leaders during two critical reconstruction periods in the past was tragically injudicious. The romantic notion that a military hero makes a good President led to two terms for Ulysses Simpson Grant, and the dangerous notion that a do-nothing leader is the answer to war fatigue led to the administrations of Harding and Coolidge.

WITH the questions listed above in mind, the writer proceeded to investigate the treatment of the nation's immortals in the most widely used American history textbooks. (Since textbooks play a major role in our scheme of education, it was assumed that they would be the proper instruments for the evaluation of leadership education.) Twenty-five personages were selected for study on the basis of the combined emphasis given to them in the *Dictionary of American Biography* and the *Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences*—two recognized, standard works. Borrowing the principle established by the Hall of Fame, no character was included that is now alive or recently deceased. This qualification was made in order to preclude issues that are still essentially controversial. Hence, such personalities as Henry Ford, Samuel Gompers, and Woodrow Wilson—men whose impression on American history has been great—were not subjects for investigation. The following are the names in order of the combined space allotment in the two standard works.

1. George Washington
2. Thomas Jefferson
3. Abraham Lincoln
4. Benjamin Franklin
5. James Madison
6. John Marshall

7. John Adams
8. Walt Whitman
9. Edgar Allan Poe
10. Ralph Waldo Emerson
11. Alexander Hamilton
12. Ulysses S. Grant
13. John Quincy Adams
14. Louis Agassiz
15. Daniel Webster
16. William Penn
17. James Monroe
18. Andrew Jackson
19. Robert E. Lee
20. Jonathan Edwards
21. Grover Cleveland
22. James McNeill Whistler
23. Henry Ward Beecher
24. Henry Clay
25. James Russell Lowell

It will be observed that the list of twenty-five names includes statesmen, military heroes, artists, clergymen, a philanthropist, and a scientist. Thus, the personages selected operated within the context of political, social, and cultural history. The study, therefore, had meaning that a shorter list could not yield.

WHAT did the investigation reveal? The writer's darkest suspicions were confirmed. Mediocre statesmen were given artificial prominence because of their association with political events. The really great statesmen of the Washington, Jefferson, Hamilton, Lincoln stamp were frequently treated obliquely; the soloist was drowned in the accompaniment. James Monroe, for example, who was merely an *eventful man*, to use Sidney Hook's phrase, assumed as much importance as Abraham Lincoln, an *event maker*. The leaders of science, thought, and culture—Emerson, Whitman, Agassiz, Poe, Lowell, *et al.*—received casual and scant attention. The clergymen, in spite of the role played by religion in American history, were altogether neglected. In respect to character portrayal, in respect to some treatment that might throw light on the question of fitness to perform a particular job, the texts were completely remiss. With few exceptions, the tendency was to deal with statistics and facts, and to avoid making judgments of character and conduct. The universal interest in human life, struggle, and death—accented in the adolescent's hero worship—found no satisfaction in any of the texts.

A few examples will illustrate the point. John

Quincy Adams, who is thirteenth in importance on our list of twenty-five and who is an excellent personification of the spirit of disinterested public service, receives an average treatment in the texts examined of about seven hundred words. Henry Clay, twenty-fourth on our list, is assigned an average of fifteen hundred words. In few texts does the student get an inkling of Adams' virtues as a man, nor is the opportunism of Clay alluded to. Fortunately, the American people showed a better sense of balance than did the textbook writers. Adams was awarded the Presidency, while Clay's eternal straddling of important issues got him nowhere.

The textbook treatment of the personages who occupy important positions in the Pantheon of the arts and sciences is even more vulnerable. Walt Whitman, whose life represents a triumph over poverty and obscurity and whose work shows broad humanity and an abiding faith in democracy, is completely ignored in one of the most widely used texts and is given an average of twenty words in each of the others. Typical of the treatment is the following: "Walt Whitman was one of the most original of American poets, a truly creative genius. He was the poet of Democracy." The scientist Agassiz gets no mention in eight of the twelve texts studied. Here was an American by adoption, who laid the foundation for teaching and research in the natural sciences. Similar is the treatment of the other leaders of thought and culture included in our list.

TO POINT out limitations in current history texts is to raise an accusing finger at educators in general and syllabi makers in particular, for anyone who has written texts knows what slavish adherence to syllabi is demanded by publishers. Does it follow, then, that the molders of educational policy have succumbed to the current emphasis on utilitarian values? If not, how can we explain the neglect of men of thought and culture in our history texts—men whose ideas, whose social vision, whose scientific achievement, whose artistic power might give to democratic education a dimension which other systems of education do not have and do not need? Are we not, thereby, slighting the deepest intellectual and spiritual interests of our civilization? In subordination of human personality and character delineation to the presentation of impersonal content are we not missing an opportunity for character education? In the failure to evaluate leadership within the context of events,

are we not losing a golden chance to cultivate in the citizen of tomorrow a sensitiveness to what is significant in the leader and to what is trivial? Are we educating our young according to the dictum of William James, "to know a good man when we see one"?

Fortunately, the war is causing educators to take stock. Perhaps, in the work of adjusting education to the needs of a post-war world, agreements will be reached which will be productive of a saner balance and proportion. With the passing of the war emergency, which blinded so many educational leaders to the necessity for continued emphasis on the liberal arts subjects, we may once again see curricular time devoted to our cultural heritage and to its corresponding concern with leaders of thought and action. In this re-evaluation, the textbook writers may see

fit to play down historian's history and assign a greater role to personality in history. This would result in a happier conciliation of present-day society's accent on leadership with the adolescent's natural interest in people and in heroes. This should not be interpreted as an acceptance of Carlyle's credo that great men alone make history, but rather as an understanding of his observation that no sadder proof can be given to any man of his own littleness than disbelief in the great man.

Finally, a carefully prepared inventory may lead educators to evolve a new, long overdue synthesis: the union of the progressive teacher's indignation and vision with the older school's emphasis on tradition and discipline. Such a marriage would restore life to our immortals, and give them, also, good health.

—in the study of United States history, at every school level, special emphasis should be given to the study of dramatic, key episodes in our development, such as: the signing of the Mayflower Compact; the adoption of the Virginia Bill of Rights; the announcement of the Monroe Doctrine; the Emancipation Proclamation; the adoption of the Open Door Policy; the establishment of free public schools; and the passage of the Social Security Act

—at many points in the curriculum, and especially in the intermediate grades, there should be more study of the men and women whose lives have personified and advanced the democratic tradition; the biographies of these persons should be presented against the background of their times

—before graduating from high school every pupil should study a systematic unit of work on "the American tradition" which interprets the nation's history, defines democracy, and presents the struggles involved in developing and safeguarding the democratic way . . . (National Council for the Social Studies, *The Social Studies Mobilize for Victory; a Statement of Wartime Policy*).

Equipping Social Studies Teachers for Community Study

William E. Mosher and Roy A. Price

TRAINING for effective living in the community, the nation, and the world, it is repeatedly emphasized, is the primary and the most important objective of public education. Despite the widespread acceptance of this purpose, it is generally recognized that citizenship training in the public-school system has been too cloistered from reality, and that a fresh attack on the problem is of paramount importance. One of the most interesting and promising suggestions for vitalizing citizenship training is the systematic use of the community as a laboratory.

It has been argued that there is as much need for teachers of the social studies to supplement their textbooks with laboratory techniques and materials as for the teachers of the natural sciences who now take the laboratory for granted as a necessity for effective teaching. True, there is available to social studies teachers a kind of laboratory in books, pamphlets, periodicals, maps, charts, and globes to convey descriptions of the past and present, the far and near. These materials are essential, but their value and meaning for the student are dependent on his ability to understand them in terms of his own life and experiences. This understanding comes through the recognition of elements similar to his own experience. Likewise, the experiences of a local nature are enhanced by their identification with and relation to the larger and more comprehensive national and world scenes.

The continuance of democratic institutions re-

Even those teachers who recognize the value of community study often need help in planning for it and in selecting from a wide range of possibilities the experiences that may prove most effective. This account of a summer program for teachers at Syracuse University is contributed by the dean of the Maxwell Graduate School of Citizenship and Public Affairs and an associate professor of education in that School.

quires not only information and understanding; it requires a sense of social responsibility and constructive action. As has been well said, democracy denotes a *participating* partnership. It is believed that a drive toward participation and action can be better engendered in a local situation where one may sense needs at firsthand. Although many a teacher is convinced of the soundness of the arguments for community study, he finds himself handicapped because of the lack of experience and background in the use of the community for laboratory purposes.

It is unfortunately true that most of the undergraduate study of prospective social studies teachers depends exclusively on textbooks and reference works. Such preparation inclines teachers to stick closely to books in their own instructing. If, under the pressure of progressive thinking, teachers occasionally venture to take their classes on field trips for the purpose of observing local institutions, they may have conscientious doubts as to the resulting educational values. What is lacking? Are the banks in the community, the labor unions, courts, hospitals, and industries sterile sources for the interpretation of life? Or, do teachers point out only the obvious, overrate the trivial, and on the whole discover a disjointed picture? Do they fail to see the forest for the trees? Too often teachers lack the insight and background needed to extract the real meanings of observed phenomena and link them with general information, principles, and trends.

This paper will describe a six-weeks' summer course set up for the purpose of training experienced social studies teachers as competent interpreters of community institutions, i.e., institutions to be found in any typical community.

A SUMMER PROGRAM FOR TEACHERS

AT THE outset of the course the citizen was defined as "man in society," i.e., not a political animal alone, but also a social and eco-

nomic one. In selecting the instructional staff, it was necessary to secure the co-operation of the following social-science specialists: a political scientist, to deal with governmental organizations and officials; an economist, to give guidance on organizations and individuals engaged in producing, transporting, and marketing goods; a sociologist, to give guidance on organizations dealing with poverty, crime, and delinquency along with the effects of environment and living standards on the people of the community; a geographer, to point out how the physical environment of a local community had influenced industrial and cultural development; and a historian, to stimulate local historical research and, through historical knowledge, throw light on existing conditions.

The syllabus for the course included for each of these social-science areas:

1. An outline of content to serve as a frame of reference.
2. An extensive bibliography of pertinent readings.
3. Methods for the fruitful use of field trips.
4. Assignments and learning activities, such as community surveys, study of maps and charts, excursions, interviews, group and panel discussions, outside speakers, and moving pictures.

Because of the limited time available, the program provided but a single week of study in each of the above social-science fields. During the week the members of the class met as a seminar with a social-science specialist to gain background information, make and analyze field trips, and discuss the application of these studies to their own teaching situations. The final week was devoted to the effort to integrate the material covered.

Field excursions furnished a wide sampling of community life. The first assignment, following

the explanation of both the historical and geographical setting, was a survey of a small village. Using outline maps, the students blocked off the following areas: commercial, industrial, transportation, recreational (both public and semi-public), and residential, by classes—poor, ordinary, superior. The second assignment had to do with political institutions. It involved trips to the police department, the sheriff's office, the courthouse, welfare agencies, and the headquarters of the Democratic and Republican parties. Examining the economic and sociological angles, students undertook many observations in the City of Syracuse, a few of which were: the State employment office, manufacturing plants, a power company, housing projects, a newspaper plant, the boy's club, and a social-service center. It might be added that it is most important for the teacher-leader of field trips to be equipped with leading pertinent questions to draw out the most significant information from officials of the organizations visited.

THE experience of the staff in teaching this course pointed up the need for reference material in a compact and accessible form that could aid teachers interested in utilizing the community as a laboratory. As a result, handbooks are now in preparation explaining various functions and organizational units of local government. Similar work is contemplated for the other social-science fields. Published in cheap editions, these handbooks could be selected by teachers according to their needs and interests. Since the material is at present in experimental form, a limited number of mimeographed copies is available for free distribution. The co-operation of interested teachers will be welcome and their criticisms are invited.

In these United States we face the problem of organizing our economic life so that all of the people are productively employed all the time. Here we are confronted with the complex issue of making good use of our land, of conserving both human and natural resources, and of saving the farm enterprise from being choked with surpluses. Right here is a challenge to our traditional principles of tolerance and equality. Race prejudice and religious bigotry are in our midst and call for relentless resistance through the use of all enlightening processes. City slums and rural substandard housing, child labor, inequality of educational opportunities, mob violence and lynching—these and many other evils threaten democracy here in America. The solid and constant attack on these human problems is the very essence of national defense and the best assurance of dependable national unity (J. W. Studebaker, "Democracy Shall Not Be Plowed Under," an address delivered to the American Farm Bureau Federation, Chicago, Illinois, December 5, 1939).

A Unit on Post-War Reconstruction

Ella A. Hawkinson and Betty St. Pierre

HEEDING the pleas of leaders in civic education to "educate for victory to safeguard the peace that we may not lose it again," the senior class in American Problems at the Moorhead State Teachers College High School studied for ten weeks the problems of post-war reconstruction. This unit was preceded by a vital unit on expenditures and taxation in which students followed Congressional taxation legislation, studied the cost of wars, the sources of revenue and money, types and amounts of expenditure, and schemes of providing for the future. They also had practice in making out actual family income-tax returns, in figuring the social-security tax, and in making bond-sales speeches during the drives.

MATERIALS

EQUIPMENT for the post-war reconstruction unit consisted of magazines, pamphlets, and several current books. No textbook was used. A bibliography, compiled from the *Readers' Guide*, Wilson's *Vertical File Service Catalog*, and Fawn M. Brodie's *Peace Aims and Post War Planning* was prepared by pupils and teacher. A copy was handed to the students at the beginning of the unit. Students preferred the magazine and pamphlet material. Several of the pupils found additional supplementary pamphlet material at the local public library. As the unit progressed, more pamphlet material was received and made accessible to students. Valuable free or inexpensive pamphlet material was received from the following sources:

American Council on Public Affairs, 2153 Florida Avenue, Washington.

Bureau of Public Inquiry, Office of War Information, Washington.

The authors of this unit on post-war problems are, respectively, the supervisor of social studies and principal of the Laboratory High School at the Moorhead State Teachers College, Moorhead, Minnesota; and a cadet teacher now located at Cass Lake, Minnesota. Joseph Kise, head of the department of political science, assisted with the collection of materials.

Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 405 West 117th Street, New York.

Commission to Study the Organization of Peace, 8 West 40th Street, New York.

Educational Film Catalog, H. W. Wilson Co., 950 University Avenue, New York.

Foreign Policy Association, 22 East 38th Street, New York, for Headline Books and World Affairs Pamphlets.

Maurice and Laura Falk Foundation, Farmers Bank Building, Pittsburgh.

National Education Association, Research Division, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, for pamphlets on *Post-War Planning* (5 cents).

National Resources Planning Board, Washington.

Platform News Publishing Co., 45A Free Street, Portland, Maine.

Public Affairs Committee, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York (see no. 73, 1942 on *After the War*).

The Post War World Council, 112 East 19th Street, New York.

U.S. Office of Education, Washington.

War Production Board, Washington.

Woodrow Wilson Foundation, 8 West 40th Street, New York.

World Peace Foundation, 40 Mt. Vernon Street, Boston.

There are many other available sources for this type of material. Every month magazines and professional journals announce new books and pamphlets which will readily fit into a unit of this type. (See bibliography at the end of the article).

STUDY TECHNIQUE

STUDENTS organized panel discussions which were used throughout the study. The problems of post-war reconstruction were divided into economic, social, and political problems as suggested by the *Agenda for Post-War Reconstruction* issued by the National Resources Planning Board. The class was small: therefore each student was a member of a panel in each of the divisions, and was to be a specialist on his particular questions. Even the poorer students responded favorably to this procedure as the opportunity to be an authority gave them an incentive to study the problem, and questions asked during the discussion gave them confidence.

Because the class was small, panels, of necessity, were also small. They were made up of about four or five members and a chairman who was to organize the panel and lead the discussion.

Different panel leaders were chosen for each division, so that nearly half of the class had the opportunity to be a chairman. Students, as well as the teacher, realized the importance of co-operation, for it was the panel which co-operated best that was the most successful.

OUTLINE

THE following unit outline was given to students to follow in preparing their panel discussions.

PROBLEMS OF POST-WAR RECONSTRUCTION

I. Introduction

- A. Should post-war problems be studied now? Do we have the time?
- B. What are the rights we are fighting for?
- C. Will nations be willing so co-operate in reconstructing the post-war world?
- D. What are the bases of a lasting peace? (These questions were used as an introduction to the unit. The questions were again considered at the end of the unit.)

II. Economic Problems

- A. How will the problem of financing post-war relief (feeding and housing of war-torn peoples) be solved?
- B. What can nations do on an international food plan?
- C. Shall there be international free trade?
 - 1. Is it essential that trade barriers be removed?
 - 2. How shall the problem of foreign credit extension (lend-lease) be met?
 - 3. Shall there be reciprocal trade agreements?
- D. Can a post-war depression be averted?
 - 1. What defective economic decisions of the last war period affect decisions after this war, and can their study counteract similar decisions after World War II?
 - 2. How will technological changes during the war period affect reconstruction?
 - 3. How can chronic unemployment be averted? What change will there be in the post-war status of labor? How will the problem of the demobilization of the military forces be met? What effect will it have on the labor situation?
 - 4. How will the problem of reconverting war industries differ after this war from World War I?
 - 5. How can states and cities plan for post-war industry, etc.?
 - E. Is an international currency standard desirable?

III. Social Problems

- A. How will the moral and psychological condition of the peoples of Europe and Asia affect social reconstruction?
 - 1. Germany and Italy
 - 2. Conquered countries
 - 3. Japan and the Indies
- B. How can destroyed or perverted educational systems be reconstructed? How can the Germans indoctrinated with "Hitlerism" be "converted" to democratic ideals? The Italian Fascists? The Japanese? The colonial areas? The conquered areas?

- C. What effect will the war have on American education?
- D. How can the problem of movement of peoples (i.e. French workers into German factories) be solved?
 - 1. What help will be needed by prisoners, exiles, émigrés, and forced laborers?
 - 2. Is post-war free immigration desirable?
- E. What part will religion play in the role of reconstruction?
- F. Shall democracy be the order of the world? Or, shall each nation be independent in its internal affairs?
- G. How will the increase in juvenile crime during the war years affect social reconstruction?

IV. Political Reconstruction

- A. What are the eight points of the Atlantic Charter? What is the significance of each point?
- B. Proposed plans for world organization:
 - 1. Isolation—no plan at all. "America First" (see *Congressional Record*) represented by speeches of Hamilton Fish, Claire Hoffman, H. K. Smith, Martin Dies, E. Cox, J. P. Thomas, and others.
 - 2. Anglo-Saxon leadership (Britain and America): Clarence Streit—*Union Now*; *Fortune* editors: "The U.S. in a New World," Part 1. "Relations with Britain" (May, 1942), Part 2. "Pacific Relations" (August, 1942)
 - 3. World Federation plans: Ely Culbertson; Governor Harold E. Stassen; George Soule and *New Republic* editors ("Lessons of Last Time," *New Republic*, February 2, 1942); other federation plans
 - 4. World Confederation plans: Revised League of Nations; Commission to Study the Organization of Peace (J. T. Shotwell, Clark Eichelberger, Quincy Wright, and others)
 - 5. Geopolitics—rule by the victors: United Nations—"democratic" nationalism and "benevolent" imperialism; Fascist—dictatorship—ruthless "geopolitics"—Hitler's blueprints for Europe.
 - 6. Unitary State.

V. Conclusion

- A. What are the bases of a lasting peace?
 - 1. What are the rights of all men for which we are fighting?
 - 2. Which powers must nations give up to obtain the world we want?
 - 3. What institutions must be built international in scope?
 - 4. How shall we now outline our procedure to prepare for the post-war period?

EVALUATION

STUDENTS worked enthusiastically on their particular problems, and their work showed good organization and thorough preparation. A weakness of the technique of presenting the unit was in using the panel method throughout. Although the discussions were good, interest in the panel method soon declined. Perhaps the use of student-directed socialized recitations, debates, or vitalized class reports in addition to a few

panel discussions would have proved more stimulating.

The main success of the unit was the stimulation of the students who are usually observers rather than contributors to class discussions. Students were aroused and seemed concerned with the reality and seriousness of the problems on which they must be ready to take leadership.

ADDITIONAL WORK: 1943-44

WITH the school year 1943-44, projects for study of post-war planning are decidedly clearer. Since the preliminary study outlined in the above article, the senior class this year has had many opportunities to continue the work. Two representatives attended the Economic Planning Conference in Fargo during the summer, two others were at the Open Forum Discussion in WDAY studios to hear Senators Ball and Mahoney discuss post-war planning.

New topics for class study include:

- I. The Conferences—plans for war and peace. Casa Blanca, Quebec, Moscow, Cairo, Tehran
- II. Rehabilitation and Feeding
Food Conferences
Plans of the Lehman Committee
The A.M.G.
- III. Areas with which we need acquaintance
(Map-location projects related to current events utilize mimeographed outline maps)
The land and peoples, the history, the government and problems of: Australia, Southwest Pacific, Japan, China, Soviet Russia, India.

The booklets published by the Webster Publishing Company have been very valuable on these areas. Helpful material is also furnished in the text used by the air cadet classes, namely:

Wallbank, Walter and Taylor, Alastair M. *Civilization—Past and Present*, vol. II. (Chicago: Scott, Foresman, 1942. Pp. 579).

Erroneous conceptions in map study are corrected by such publications as *Maps* by Vultee Aircraft Corporation and Lawrence, Chester H. and Ramsey, Ray, *New World Horizons*, published by Silver Burdett Company.

Articles on post-war planning in the *Scholastic* magazine have furnished valuable material.

Local planning work is bringing the pupils in direct contact with post-war problems. Returned soldiers are clarifying the needs in conquered and fighting areas. Honorably discharged soldiers are bringing the planning for jobs right home

to the pupils. Here are avenues of approach that will easily bring any class into discussion of vital issues.

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Amerasia
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Annals of the American Academy
Building America
Christian Science Monitor Weekly Magazine Section
Congressional Digest
Congressional Record
Current History
Fortune (select numbers)
International Conciliation
Newsweek
The New Republic
The Rotarian
Scholastic (Senior)
Survey Graphic
Time
United States. Department of State. Bulletin
United States News
Victory Bulletin
Vital Speeches of the Day

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The Economic Institutions of the United Nations

Francis R. Flournoy

WE HAVE established during this war an international organization which is almost unique in the history of the world. Never before, except during the last war, have international agencies been entrusted with so much influence and authority in the field of actual administration as is now being exercised by a network of boards, committees, and councils that have grown up in a somewhat illogical fashion to execute the vast designs of the United Nations.

THE COMBINED BOARDS

THE most powerful of these possibly are the Combined Chiefs of Staff and the Combined Munitions Assignment Boards. Since they deal with military problems they are beyond the scope of this article, which is concerned with the organizations which exercise purely economic functions. Of agencies answering to this description, those of chief importance are the Combined Food Board, the Combined Raw Materials Board, the Combined Production and Resources Board, and the Combined Shipping Adjustment Board. These Boards have the primary responsibility of planning the economic mobilization of as much of the total world resources as can be utilized for the war against the Axis. The Boards' legal authority, of course, extends only to the states represented in them, namely, the United States, Great Britain, and in the case of the C.F.B. and the C.P.R.B., Canada. But because of the character of international economic relationships, and the

Most of us are vaguely aware that the United Nations have developed powerful agencies to co-ordinate economic policies and use of resources, even as other agencies co-ordinate military efforts. This article describes the nature and the somewhat complicated organization of the emergency economic authorities, which may well evolve into permanent international institutions. The author is professor of history and political science in the College of Emporia.

dependence of so large a part of the world on the three powers just mentioned for supplies, the Boards are able to influence the economic policies of most of the United Nations and of some of the neutrals as well.

The Combined Food Board works out projects for the supply, transportation, and allocation of the food needed by the United Nations. The Combined Raw Materials Board plans the development of the maximum output of raw materials for the use of the United Nations, the allocation of such supplies, and the promotion of the highest degree of conservation in the utilization of them. The Combined Production and Resources Board plans the division of the production tasks imposed by the war among the only countries within the circle of the United Nations which contain industrial resources capable of producing more than is necessary to meet their own needs, namely, Great Britain, the United States, and Canada. The Combined Shipping Adjustment Board, with its two branches in London and Washington, prepares plans for the effective employment of the two great pools of shipping which have been brought under the control respectively of Great Britain and of the United States. These pools include almost the entire shipping resources of the world, for there have been placed at the direction of the shipping administrations of Great Britain or of the United States most of the vessels belonging to the other United Nations and of those neutral states which are beyond the reach of the Axis Powers.

THE Boards are each composed of one British and one American member, and in the case of the Combined Food Board and the Combined Production and Resources Board there is also a member on each Board from Canada. Each member is a high official or a representative of such an official in the national agency of his government responsible for the sphere of activity with

which the Board to which he belongs is concerned. The work of the Boards is done largely by committees composed of experts drawn from the appropriate national agencies, or by groups of two such experts, usually one British and one American. These committees or groups prepare reports containing relevant data and recommendations for action on the various problems presented to the Boards by the national agencies. On the basis of these reports the Boards make their proposals to these agencies. In practice, the proposals are normally carried out, primarily because the members of the Boards are themselves for the most part the officials or the representatives of the officials having the responsibility in the national agencies of carrying into effect what the Boards have proposed. In this way there is utilized the principle which Sir Arthur Salter considered the chief secret of the success attained by the Inter-Allied Councils and Committees created in the last war to serve as a means of co-operation among the members of the anti-German coalition.

The Combined Boards, like other war agencies, are dynamic institutions; their organization and sphere of activities tend to change with the rapidly changing conditions of the war. As the struggle progresses and victory approaches, it is likely that organizations, like the Boards, that are concerned with civilian economy and, hence, with the problems of reconstruction, will grow in importance. Already the organization of the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration makes necessary the establishment by the Combined Boards of a close relationship with that agency, and consequently the assumption of growing responsibilities by the Boards. Hence it is likely that the Boards will be able in the future to overcome the obstacles which have tended heretofore to diminish their effectiveness in certain phases of their work.

PROBLEMS OF NATIONAL REPRESENTATION

THE organization of the Combined Boards is criticized adversely on the ground that they do not represent all the United Nations, or even the Big Four. There is, of course, much force in this criticism. But it must be noted in the first place that the character of these agencies has been determined by practical considerations growing out of the circumstances in which they have developed. The only powers which are conducting a really global war on a large scale are the United States, Great Britain, and Canada. The operations of China and Russia are confined

to narrowly defined theaters in each of which one or the other power must bear the chief burden. In these theaters, the British Empire and the United States can participate only by supplying material—in the case of China an exceedingly limited amount—and a small contingent of manpower.

The role of the weaker United Nations is totally different from that of the Big Four. For the most part, the contribution that each of the former can make to the common effort is very small as compared with that of the larger powers. It might be said that this is not quite so true of Brazil, Mexico, and the French territories which are not in Axis occupation. But the anti-Axis French are not sufficiently numerous and not yet organized in such a manner as would entitle them to take a position on the same basis as the Big Four. Brazil and Mexico are chiefly interested in the war as it affects this hemisphere rather than as it affects the world at large. They are already closely linked to the United States through the inter-American agencies. Hence their participation in the Combined Boards would hardly be likely to promote the military objectives of the United Nations. The war, indeed, to all these Nations except the United States, Great Britain, and Canada, is primarily a regional problem. It is logical, therefore, that a system of organization which is chiefly on a regional basis, except as concerning those powers which are waging war on a global scale, should have developed as the agency for co-ordinating the economic efforts of the anti-Axis coalition. Doubtless representation upon the Combined Boards of all the United Nations or at least of the more powerful among them would be more satisfactory from many points of view, and it is not unlikely that steps in this direction may soon be taken; but the importance of the real progress made in the formation of the Boards as they stand should not be minimized.

AGAIN, insufficient attention has been given to the fact that the anti-Axis governments not represented on the Combined Boards have a number of avenues of approach to those Boards and hence means by which they can exert influence on the decisions of the latter. Thus the Combined Raw Materials Board is directed to collaborate with the governments in question "in order to bring about the most effective use of the United Nations' raw materials in the total war effort." This collaboration has been carried on through the diplomatic services of the United

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States and Great Britain, the foreign services of the Board (now the Office) of Economic Warfare, and the representatives of the various United Nations, the Associated Nations, and friendly neutrals, in Washington. In this manner negotiations are conducted with the Belgian and Portuguese Governments and with the French National Committee regarding the use of the raw materials in their territories and the supply of their needs in this field. The British Dominions, except Canada, deal with the C.R.M.B. primarily through the Raw Materials Sub-Committee of the Commonwealth Supply Council in London, of which an account will be given on a later page, and the British member of the C.R.M.B. in Washington is advised by a Committee in that capital of Empire representatives.

In the case of the Combined Food Board, the participation of the other United Nations is obtained in part through the Committees organized to handle special problems relating to agricultural production and distribution. While there are on each Committee members from both the United States and Great Britain and in most instances from Canada, members are also drawn from the other United Nations, the objective being to obtain those people, regardless of nationality, who are especially qualified by knowledge and experience to deal with the subject in hand. In addition, the Combined Food Board has organized the London Food Committee, composed of representatives of Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, Southern Rhodesia, and India, together with members of the various British Governmental Agencies concerned with food questions. Among these latter, the member from the Foreign Office represents the interests of the French Committee of National Liberation, the Belgian Congo, Turkey, and to a degree those of South America. The member from the Ministry of War Transport represents the Middle East Supply Center, an organization described at a later point, and the member from the Ministry of Economic Warfare takes care of the interests of the European neutrals other than Turkey.

In a similar manner, it would appear, relationships are maintained between the C.P.R.B. and the United Nations which are not represented upon it. These relationships, however, are concerned entirely with the allocation of supplies produced by the United States, Great Britain, and Canada, since, as has been pointed out, those countries are the only ones possessing a surplus of supplies beyond their own needs. As will be

explained below, the contacts of the British Dominions of the Eastern Hemisphere with the C.P.R.B. are maintained in part through the Commonwealth Supply Council.

In the case of shipping matters, close relations between many of the United Nations and the Combined Shipping Adjustment Board are maintained in accordance with the agreements made by the former for the placing of the greater portion of their merchant ships at the disposal of the United States and the British Shipping Administrations, in turn receiving from these Administrations assignments of available tonnage to meet their needs. The states dependent on the American pool of shipping, therefore, deal directly with the Washington branch of the C.S.A.B. or the American national authorities concerned with shipping matters. Similarly, the states dependent on the British pool may approach directly the British national authorities and the London branch of the C.S.A.B. To facilitate these contacts there have been organized in London Anglo-Soviet, Anglo-Norwegian, Anglo-Netherlands, Anglo-Greek, Anglo-French, and Anglo-Yugoslav Shipping Committees. There is a United States representative on the Anglo-Soviet Committee and also one on the Anglo-Netherlands Committee when the question of allocating Netherlands ship under the joint control of the C.S.A.B. is under discussion.

In planning economic relationships with Russia, the Boards are largely guided by protocols drawn up with that country by the national agencies, primarily the diplomatic services, of the United States and Great Britain. In the making of these protocols and in amending them from time to time as necessity for doing so arises, the Boards as such do not appear to play any great part, except in an informal capacity. In the case of China, what slight economic relationships are still carried on with the outside world seem to be conducted primarily with the United States.

REGIONAL INTERNATIONAL AGENCIES

IN ADDITION to the influence exerted on the Combined Boards by the United Nations who are represented in the Boards, certain groups of these Nations are also able to bring influence directly upon the British and American Governments by means of a whole network of agencies converging upon Washington and London. Before the Boards were set up, the United States and Canada had established a system of co-operation by means of their Permanent Joint Board on Defense, their Materials Coordinating

Committee, their Joint Economic Committee, and their Joint War Production Committee. The United States member of the Materials Committee is also a member of the Combined Raw Materials Board and is authorized to handle the affairs of Canada in that Board.

As a result of the Good Neighbor Policy as well as of the exigencies created by the World War, there have been developed a number of economic agencies among the American Republics, notably the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee, and the Inter-American Maritime Technical Commission. In addition, collaboration in defense—necessarily involving economic co-operation—is organized by the Inter-American, Mexican-United States, and Brazilian-United States Defense Commissions. In July 1943 a joint United States-Mexican Commission issued a report which was accepted by the Presidents of the two countries and directed to be put into effect. This report provided for co-operative measures to be adopted by the two governments with the objective of stimulating the production in Mexico of commodities and goods needed in the war and post-war periods.

The Eastern Group Supply Council, with headquarters at New Delhi, India, was established early in the war to deal with the economic wartime needs and to expand the productive capacity of all the British and Dutch countries in Southeastern Asia, the South Seas, and Eastern Africa. The Council endeavored to work out plans for supplying the needs of the countries represented in it as far as possible from local sources, and then to provide for them from other countries represented in the Council, or if necessary from still other sources such as Great Britain and the United States.

A large portion of the functions of the Eastern Group Supply Council have now been taken over by the Commonwealth Supply Council, meeting in London and composed of representatives of all the British Dominions, including India but not Canada, together with officials from the British national agencies concerned with Empire and war problems. The Council undertakes to examine the total requirements of the Empire, to arrange for the fulfilling of those requirements so far as feasible from sources other than the United States, and then to provide information upon which the Combined Boards, especially that on Production and Resources, may arrange for meeting the deficiencies from United States sources. The process has been described as follows by one of the British Ministers:

The coördinated picture of Empire production obtained through the machinery of the Commonwealth Supply council is transmitted to the British representative on the Combined Production and Resources Board in Washington, where it is integrated with the production of North America, and where the needs of the United Nations as a whole are taken fully into account. . . . Thus . . . in the Combined Production and Resources Board practical and far-reaching machinery already exists for the coördination of Allied production.

The Council, however, does not replace the supply missions of the British Dominions in Washington, but estimates made by the latter of their requirements, at least with respect to scarce articles, have to be revised by the Commonwealth Supply Council and the Combined Production and Resources Board.

THE Middle East Supply Center at Cairo is an agency originally organized under the direction of the British Government. It began as an agency for conserving shipping space employed in the trade of the Middle and Near Eastern Countries, since these countries as a result of the war situation had become entirely dependent on British ships for the carriage of the products and supplies transported by sea. Through the exigencies of the situation, the Center gradually had to assume a measure of responsibility for determining the needs of the people of these countries, for developing their production, and for maintaining economic tranquility in them by checking inflation. It has become, therefore, a general planning board for influencing the life and work of great populations in Egypt, Turkey, Iraq, Iran, Arabia, and other states of this part of the world. Its influence is exerted through its control of international trade and shipping in the entire area. Every six months there are full meetings of a Council connected with the Center at which delegates of the countries affected by its operations are present and economic programs are worked out.

With the growth of American economic and military interests in the Middle East, this country began to assume a share in the control of the Center. Supervision over its operations was vested in a Committee composed of high officials of the United States and Great Britain in London. Mr. Frederick Winant became Chairman of the Center in Cairo and added a number of Americans to its staff. Mr. James Landis has recently replaced Mr. Winant as Chairman of the Center and has also become American Director of Economic Operations in the Middle East with the personal rank of Minister. Mr. Winant has be-

come Chairman of the Executive Committee of the Combined Agency for Middle East Supply with headquarters in Washington. This body is vested with the function of co-ordinating Anglo-American responsibilities for the Middle East Supply Center in the United States.

In considering the economic institutions which have grown up to serve the interests of the United Nations as a group, it must always be remembered that there has been built up a system of relationships among the larger number of these nations which is not conducted by what may be termed international agencies and which is consequently not fully described in this paper. This system is based on the Lend-Lease mechanism, under which the United States furnishes to the other United Nations large quantities of munitions, food, and other supplies needed not only for war purposes but also by the civil population. Reverse Lend-Lease also provides for such needs of this country as can be supplied by our Allies. Methods similar to these have been developed by Great Britain. Canada, through its system of Mutual Aid, furnishes supplies to her Allies without any provision for repayment in goods or money at a later date, as is in theory the provision with regard to Lend-Lease and Reverse Lend-Lease. By such methods there are created the great pools of raw materials, food, manufactured goods, and ships, the use of which it is the function of the Combined Boards to direct. Thus there is being developed among the United Nations a condition of mutual interdependence which is in some ways more important than the institutional growth which we have been tracing.

ECONOMIC ORGANIZATIONS TO SERVE FUTURE NEEDS

WHEN we come to examine those economic institutions of the United Nations which are being established primarily to deal with future problems, we find that they are designed to operate on a relatively all-inclusive and fairly representative basis. Thus the International Wheat Council represents already the United States, Canada, Australia, Argentina, and Great Britain, and it is designed to represent ultimately all "the nations willing to participate which have a substantial interest in international trade in wheat." In the Hot Springs Food Conference there participated forty-three states, including virtually all of those which are not part of the Axis or associated with it. Delegates from the same states compose the Interim Commission established by the Conference, and the permanent international body to deal with the problems of food and agriculture will probably be organized on a similar plan. The same forty-three states are also represented in the Council of the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration, and while the Big Four hold a predominant position in that Administration, the other Nations are by no means without influence in it.

All of this development represents a trend in the policy of our Government and those of the other United Nations which is of great significance for the future. It cannot be discussed here in detail, since it is rather with what has actually been accomplished that this article is concerned. The plans for the future and what has been done to realize them comprise another and possibly even more important story.

What are the methods which might be used to help revive the self-sustaining production of war-stricken peoples? The first thing, of course, is to help save the peoples themselves. Starving and disease-ridden farmers, workers, and managers cannot produce efficiently. To save the people in some areas it will be necessary to rush in considerable quantities of foodstuffs, medical supplies, and clothing materials from outside to make up the gap between locally available supplies on the one hand and the minimum health and subsistence needs of the people on the other. At the same time, every effort must be made, in cooperation with the government of the area and with the other United Nations, to help the people increase their local production of goods and services and to get those moving in exchange between surplus and deficit areas. The physical part of this problem is obvious. Railroads, highways, bridges, port facilities, the essential telephone and telegraph lines, must be quickly repaired. The armed forces, for military reasons, will undoubtedly do much of this work. Essential services such as water supply and sanitation must be restored in the cities and towns. Vital repair parts for factories and mines, seeds and equipment for agriculture, will all be needed as a part of the process of emergency physical rehabilitation. This physical repair of damage, in which we can cooperate by lending a helping hand to the liberated peoples, is a necessary part of restoring the productive powers of the community. . . . (Eugene Staley at the Canadian Institute on Public Affairs, August 26, 1943.)

Important Political Document in Social Studies for Secondary Schools

Clarence Fielstra

AMONG the numerous research investigations in the field of social studies, it appears that none has been concerned with political documents and the place that they should be given in the teaching of the social studies on the secondary-school level. Inasmuch as there are thousands of such documents in existence, however, it seems reasonable to believe that many teachers are desirous of knowing just which of the documents are considered worthy of emphasis. To provide such information was the aim of this study.

PART I: CITATIONS IN TEXTS AND PERIODICALS

PART I of the study had three purposes: (1) to find what political documents were most persistently mentioned in selected textbooks in the field of social studies; (2) to find what documents were most persistently mentioned in selected periodicals for the ten-year period from 1931 through 1940; and (3) to find what documents not among those most persistently mentioned in selected textbooks and periodicals were, nevertheless, considered important by a group of subject-matter specialists.

In order to find what political documents were mentioned in textbooks, five books, published since 1935, in each of the following five areas were analyzed: American history, junior high school level; citizenship, junior high school; American history, senior high school; economics, senior high school; and American government, senior high school.

This article summarizes part of a dissertation accepted in satisfaction of a requirement for the degree of doctor of philosophy by the School of Education, University of Michigan. Some details relating to criteria, sampling, analysis, and statistical procedures are omitted here. The author, formerly general supervisor of practice teaching in the School of Education, Stanford University, is now curriculum co-ordinator for the schools of San Diego County, California.

To discover what political documents were mentioned in periodicals, 102 issues of newspapers and 130 issues of weekly or monthly magazines published during the 120 months from 1931 through 1940 were analyzed.

To find what additional political documents were considered important by subject-matter specialists, the opinions of five professors representing American history, economics, history of education, political science, and sociology were obtained.

THROUGHOUT the investigation, political documents were arbitrarily considered to include: constitutions and charters; treaties, agreements, and pacts; legislative acts, bills, and resolutions; judicial decisions; executive proclamations and messages; political-party platforms; governmental committee and commission reports; and diplomatic papers.

A list was made of those documents which were mentioned in at least three of the fifteen senior high school textbooks or in at least five of the total number of twenty-five textbooks. To this list of documents persistently mentioned in the textbooks examined were added the names of those documents mentioned in periodical issues during three or more of the 120 months represented by the periodicals. The combined list was submitted to the five subject-matter specialists, who were asked to add items in their respective areas which they considered sufficiently important to merit inclusion.

Findings. The investigation shows that:

1. A total of 704 documents was mentioned in the twenty-five textbooks analyzed.
2. A total of 912 documents was mentioned in at least three of the fifteen senior high school textbooks or in at least five of the total number of twenty-five textbooks analyzed.
3. The social studies area in which textbooks referred most persistently to documents was American history: 255 documents were men-

tioned in at least three of the five senior high school textbooks, and 93 documents in at least three of the five junior high school textbooks in that area.

4. A total of 495 documents was mentioned in the 232 issues of periodicals analyzed.

5. A total of 91 documents was mentioned in periodical issues during at least three of the 120 months represented. Thirty of these were not among the 312 documents which were mentioned in at least three of the senior high school texts or in at least five of all the texts analyzed.

6. The subject-matter specialists considered 41 political documents in their respective content areas sufficiently important to be added to the 342 documents mentioned in textbooks, and to the 91 political documents mentioned in periodicals.

PART II: JUDGMENTS OF TEACHING SPECIALISTS

THE purpose of Part II of the investigation was to find to what extent the various political documents most persistently mentioned in selected textbooks and periodicals or believed to be important by subject-matter specialists, were considered by experts in the teaching of social studies to be worthy of emphasis on the secondary-school level.

The jury of experts who co-operated in the evaluation of the political documents consisted of ten professors of the teaching of social studies: six university teachers, and four members of the staffs of teacher-education colleges. The ten institutions represented were widely distributed geographically.

A list containing the names of the 312 political documents persistently mentioned in selected textbooks together with the 30 additional documents persistently mentioned in selected periodicals and the 41 documents considered also to be important by a group of subject-matter specialists was submitted to each juror with the following request:

Mark the document "0" if acquaintance with it by pupils is unimportant and unnecessary.

Mark the document "1" if pupils should know minimum facts concerning it—such facts as name, time of appearance, reason for making, and results of issuance.

Mark the document "2" if pupils, in addition to knowing these minimum facts, should have a general acquaintance with the content of the document.

Mark the document "3" if pupils, in addition to knowing the above, should have available for study a copy of the document itself or important excerpts from it.

The average rating given by the experts to each of the political documents listed was com-

puted. The names of all political documents given average evaluations of "1.6" or higher are recorded in the list which follows, together with the average of the evaluations made by the ten teaching specialists.

RATINGS OF DOCUMENTS BY EXPERTS

Constitution of the United States (and 21 Amendments)	3
Declaration of Independence, 1776	3
Lincoln's Gettysburg Address, 1863	3
Wilson's Fourteen Points, 1918	2.65
Mayflower Compact, 1620	2.55
Articles of Confederation, 1777	2.5
Lincoln's First Inaugural Address, 1861	2.5
Magna Carta (England), 1215	2.5
Northwest Ordinance, 1787	2.5
Bill of Rights (England), 1689	2.45
Emancipation Proclamation, 1863	2.45
Monroe Doctrine, 1823	2.45
Washington's Farewell Address, 1796	2.45
Social Security Act, 1935	2.15
Treaty of Versailles, 1919	2.11
Compromise of 1850	2.1
Dred Scott Decision, 1857	2.1
Tennessee Valley Authority Act, 1933	2.1
Kellogg-Briand Pact, 1928	2
Peace of Paris, 1783	2
Republican Platform, 1860	2
Roosevelt's First Inaugural Address, 1933	2
South Carolina Ordinance of Secession, 1860	1.95
Civil Service Act (Pendleton), 1883	1.9
Clayton Anti-Trust Act, 1914	1.9
Declaration of Rights, 1765	1.9
Immigration Act (Quota Act), 1921	1.9
Louisiana Purchase Treaty, 1803	1.9
National Labor Relations Act (Wagner), 1935	1.9
Sherman Anti Trust Act, 1890	1.9
Democratic Platform, 1932	1.85
Federal Housing Act, 1933	1.85
Missouri Compromise, 1820	1.85
Peace of Paris, 1763	1.85
Republican Platform, 1856	1.85
Zenger Decision (Freedom of Press), 1735	1.85
Bill of Rights (Virginia Constitution), 1776	1.8
Farm Tenancy and Rural Rehabilitation Act, 1937	1.8
Federal Reserve Act, 1913	1.8
Home Owners Loan Act, 1933	1.8
Independence Resolution (Lee), 1776	1.8
Intolerable Acts (Five Acts), 1774	1.8
Kansas-Nebraska Act, 1854	1.8
Kentucky Resolutions, 1798	1.8
Virginia Plan, 1787	1.77
Democratic Platform, 1940	1.75
Hay "Open Door" Agreement, 1899	1.75
Jefferson's First Inaugural Address, 1801	1.75
Republican Platform, 1896	1.75
Selective Service Act, 1940	1.75
South Carolina Ordinance of Nullification, 1832	1.75
Albany Plan of Union, 1754	1.7
Alien Act, 1798	1.7
Black Codes (Southern States), 1865	1.7
City Manager Charter (any good one like that for Saginaw, Michigan)	1.7
Civilian Conservation Corps (Act creating), 1933	1.7
Copeland Food, Drug, and Cosmetic Act, 1938	1.7

Homestead Act, 1862	1.7
Interstate Commerce Act, 1887	1.7
National Industrial Recovery Act, 1933	1.7
Neutrality Proclamation (Wilson), 1914	1.7
Hatch Act (Civil Service), 1939	1.66
Democratic Platform, 1936	1.65
Tariff Act (Hamilton), 1789	1.65
Virginia Resolutions, 1798	1.65
Agricultural Adjustment Act, 1938	1.6
Civil Rights Act, 1866	1.6
Doctrine of Fascism (Mussolini), 1929	1.6
Fair Labor Standards Act, 1938	1.6
German Constitution (Weimar; post-World War I)	1.6
Housing Authority Act (Wagner-Steagall), 1937	1.6
McCulloch vs. Maryland Decision, 1819	1.6
New England Confederation Constitution, 1643	1.6
Public Works Administration (Act creating), 1933	1.6
Pure Food and Drug Act, 1906	1.6
Soil Conservation and Domestic Allotment Act, 1936	1.6
Work Relief Act (WPA), 1935	1.6

Findings. As a result of this investigation, the following facts were discovered:

1. Seventy-seven political documents which were found to be most persistently mentioned in selected textbooks and periodicals or considered important by subject-matter specialists were given average evaluations of "1.6" or higher by the ten professors of the teaching of social studies. Of these 77 documents, 66 were among those found to be most persistently mentioned in selected textbooks; 31 were among those found to be most persistently mentioned in the selected periodicals; and five were among those added by subject-matter specialists. Only 25 of the 77 were among the documents found to be most persistently mentioned in both the textbooks and the periodicals which were analyzed.

2. The coefficient of correlation between the experts' average evaluations of the 66 political documents which were marked "1.6" or higher by them and the numbers of selected textbooks which mentioned those documents was .37 (Spearman) or .36 (Pearson). The coefficient of correlation between the experts' average evaluations of the 31 political documents which were rated "1.6" or higher by them and the numbers of months during which the documents were mentioned in selected periodicals was even lower, being .16 (Spearman) or .32 (Pearson).

3. A total number of 279 political documents, of the 383 which were submitted to experts, received ratings of "1" or higher, indicating that the documents thus marked were worthy of some attention or emphasis on the secondary-school level.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

IN SO FAR as the results of this study may be valid, four seem justified:

1. The number of political documents mentioned in textbooks for the social studies on the secondary-school level is much too great for pupils to be expected to learn even the minimum details about them.

2. Writers of textbooks in social studies for secondary schools cannot be relied on to make references to all the political documents which are most persistently mentioned in periodicals.

3. Neither textbooks nor periodicals can be relied on to include references to all political documents which subject-matter specialists in the field of social studies consider important.

4. There is little correlation between expert opinion concerning the extent to which political documents should be emphasized on the secondary-school level and the persistency with which reference is actually made to them either in textbooks or in periodicals.

The following recommendations appear to be worthy of consideration:

1. Copies of the 77 political documents marked "1.6" or higher by the experts, or important excerpts from those documents, should be made available to pupils in the field of social studies on the secondary-school level. Having access to copies of the documents, the pupils can, whenever it seems desirable, supplement the discussion "about a document" with a study "of the document." The grade level and time when each document might be considered by the pupils was not determined by this study but may very likely depend on such factors as (1) the nature and sequence of the topics, projects, and problems in the social studies courses of a given school; (2) the relationship of the social studies to courses in other fields; (3) the nature of the community; and (4) the needs, abilities, and interests of the pupils.

2. In determining the extent to which each of the political documents should be emphasized in the social studies on the secondary-school level, teachers and textbook writers should consider the experts' evaluations of the documents as a guiding factor.

3. Inasmuch as this investigation was not concerned with any political documents issued after December, 1940, other studies should be made from time to time to determine what documents are worthy of additional emphasis.

A Positive Philosophy for the Social Studies: Two Interpretations

I. L. Kerrison
R. O. Hughes

TEACHERS MUST TAKE A STAND

TWO beliefs long held as "correct" are a serious handicap to the development of a social studies philosophy that will adequately fill the needs of the hour. Teachers are victims of the pedantic aim of objectivity; teachers are content to mouth set formulas made up of abstract terms like democracy, freedom, free enterprise, and individual initiative without going into the meaning and implication of the terms involved.

Any teacher who does not view the present world struggle as the culmination of the peoples' revolution is not worthy of the name. He who admits this fact cannot be purely objective. He must choose his side, state his aims, and become analyst, zealot, and prophet within the classroom and without. His side will be that of the common man all over the world; his aims as an American will be those implied in the liberal tradition developed by Jefferson, Jackson, Lincoln, Bryan, Wilson, and Franklin D. Roosevelt.

Today's forward-looking teacher will dispel from the classroom that aura of meaningless abstraction, replete with well-worn shibboleths, that has given the social studies a deserved reputation of dullness among students everywhere. He will admit that words mean different things

Teachers, says Mr. Kerrison of the Miller High School, Detroit, should abandon "the pedantic aim of objectivity" and hit hard, in class and out, for the interpretations and programs in which they believe.

Teachers have a prior obligation to present facts, to maintain balance and perspective, to protect "freedom of thought and action," suggests Mr. Hughes, director of citizenship and social studies in the Pittsburgh Public schools, to whom the Editor sent Mr. Kerrison's statement with an invitation to comment.

Both are agreed that a positive philosophy is needed.

to different people, and he will concern himself with the definitions which, acted upon, will bring the most good to the greatest number. His diagnosis of and prognosis for the ills of society will embrace all the spheres covered by the social studies.

In the economic field, the conflict between monopoly capitalist and common man will be presented. Free enterprise is accepted as a term by both parties. But to the former it means freedom for the minority to exploit the majority, while to the latter it means freedom from arbitrary and bureaucratic control. In a world becoming increasingly close-knit and literate, more and more people will demand a voice in controlling the production of the daily goods of life. Efficient use of world resources will require production for use rather than production for profit if the wants of all peoples are to be satisfied. The latter worked well enough to maintain itself in a young industrial world desperately in need of development; it will not work in a stabilized, industrially competent world. Peoples will no longer submit passively to the sort of scandal we met with in the exposé of international chemical and rubber cartels during the early days of the present war. They will undoubtedly want to develop consumer co-operatives and consumer controls over basic industry. They will not tolerate a state capitalism by which powerful business interests pull the strings of puppet politicians.

THE myth of the two-party political system in the United States will be exploded. A competent analysis of the situation today will show that issues cut across party lines. The rightward swing of the President during the past two years will be correctly attributed to a coalition of reactionary Republicans and Southern Democrats. It will be pointed out that, while only a third party—truly representative of labor, the farmer, and the white-collar worker, and akin to

the workers' parties in England, Australia, New Zealand, and the new Co-operative Commonwealth Federation in Canada—will make real inroads into the solution of domestic and foreign problems, the time before the elections of 1944 is so short that the common people will serve themselves best by counteracting reactionary and fascistic pressure on the present administration with powerful vocal blasts on the side of progressive policies and legislation and by supporting political candidacies of men like Vice-President Wallace.

Students must be told that, in the international sphere, the policy of expediency will have to be ended. There is a great danger that reactionaries like Darlan and Badoglio will use us while we think that we are using them. There is a greater danger that the long-suffering peoples in the occupied countries will become disillusioned about the democracy which we profess to bring them. As occupied countries are freed, the peoples therein should be allowed to have revolutions where their own liberal and progressive elements want them. The various underground movements will have to be taken into our planning conferences, all attempts at post-war imperialism must be censured, and a world federation of nations which has real power as well as formal organization will have to be created. That federation must be opened to all nations regardless of affiliation during the present conflict.

Presentation of these facts in the classroom will provide students with a stimulus to further thought and discussion, but it will not end the work of the teacher. He must cast aside his traditional timidity and, through active membership in progressive organizations, clubs, and other agencies, must carry into community life the analyses and prophecies made in the classroom. Social studies teachers, because of their daily contact with the problems of society, should stand in the vanguard of this movement to claim for teachers the intellectual leadership to which they are entitled.

I. L. KERRISON

Miller High School
Detroit

TEACHERS NEED FACTS AND BALANCE

TIS doubtless true that too often social studies teachers have felt themselves under an obligation to emphasize merely what has been done in the development of society and government, rather than what ought to be done.

It is quite possible that they have not felt themselves sufficiently omniscient to warrant their telling their pupils just what these pupils should think about the form of things to come. It has been their hope that by trying to help their pupils acquire an understanding of the facts about the history of our own country, and of other peoples and periods, there might be imparted a foundation for thinking that would serve the present and point the way to wise action in the future.

"Ye shall know the truth, and the truth shall make you free." One would hesitate to question the soundness of that statement. Another saying that has often been quoted is to the effect that it is the duty of a teacher "to tell his pupils not what to think, but how to think." Would not putting those two principles together constitute a thoroughly sound and positive philosophy for the social studies?

Must one assume, in the planning of a new world order, that there is no place for any of the ideas which seemed good to earnest thinkers in the past? We will grant that all wisdom did not die with the fathers, but surely neither was it true that no wisdom existed in the thinking of the fathers. Revolution has overthrown evils, but must all revolution necessarily be good? If so, why are we standing in Hitler's way right now? Just because one calls himself "liberal" does not guarantee that we must follow him in all the byways of his thoughts and emotions. Alexander Hamilton had something to contribute to the making of this nation, as well as Thomas Jefferson. Happily William Jennings Bryan did not have the last word on all the disputed issues of his day.

It is very true that in defining democracy, or freedom, or free enterprise, we should interpret the term in no narrow sense. But surely there is a proper difference between democracy and mob action, between freedom and license. The capitalist is not always wrong, nor the proletariat always right.

WHAT do we really mean when we advocate "production for use" as compared with "production for profit"? Unless consumers find a "use" for something, how long will anyone be able to produce it for "profit"? How can we be sure that a public official, however he may get his office, will judge accurately how much of a commodity should be put on the market and for what price it should be sold? Except in such abnormal circumstances as a time of war, the

activities of those whose success in acquiring a profit for themselves depends on their ability to judge how much people will use of a commodity, will usually come near providing what society needs. Even in a national crisis, how are you going to make Ranchman Brown raise so many hundred cattle in a year or Farmer Smith so many bushels of wheat, unless you make it to their interest to do so? How else, except to set up a Hitler with a bunch of Nazi thugs under him to watch everybody and everything connected with a nation's economy?

Yes, political parties may outlive the conditions under which they came into being. A disputed issue may be definitely settled, or may no longer appear to be as important as it did at one time. But the notion that having a third, fourth, or sixth party in the field instead of two large ones is going to result in the victory of the best one is rather wild. Suppose, as some have urged, that Republicans and Democrats should reach an identical program to be put into their platforms for 1944 in regard to international relations. If a new isolationist party should come into the field, as has been threatened, there is a real danger that it might command enough support from malicious or ignorant voters to win a plurality victory over either of the two parties which advocated co-operation and intelligence in the conduct of world affairs.

We are told that "expediency will have to be ended in the international sphere." Would one who holds such a position insist that thousands of American lives should have been lost in landing in North Africa, rather than to make a temporary deal with an opportunist like Darlan? It may sound well to say that never should we consent to bargain with error. But Ben Franklin spoke very wisely when he commented on the newly-made Constitution in the late summer of 1787: "I confess that there are several parts of this Constitution which I do not approve, but I am not sure I shall never approve them. . . . I consent to this Constitution because I expect no better and because I am not sure it is not the best."

So we might go on with the other propositions which we are told that the social studies teacher must support. I have no quarrel with those who would insist that on those propositions there should be free discussion in a class by pupils whose knowledge and experience qualify them to have opinions. But to demand that a teacher must set forth his own views so positively as to remove any chance that any might dare to disagree with him, would be fatal to the very freedom of thought and action which has been set forth as ideal. Besides, as a practical proposition, a teacher may win in the end greater support for his own views if he does not start his presentation of them by announcing that all who disagree with him are in error and that he has unfailing knowledge of what is best for this country and the world in all the years to come.

PERHAPS, too, it will be well for some teachers not to be too ready to try to reform their community and country all at once. Only a few years ago some of our fraternity were so carried away by the inconveniences and horrors of war that they preached with great fervor a doctrine of isolation and pacifism which caused them to cast reflections upon the motives and acts of our country in the previous World War and to advocate policies that came all too near putting this country and the civilized world at the mercy of as conscienceless a set of criminal tyrants as have ever smeared the pages of history.

There can be too "positive" an attitude on the part of a teacher in his classroom and in other places. Let him seek to know the truth, and to teach what experience has proved to be true; and let him urge that opinions formed by his pupils, or by anybody else, shall be based on sound fact and intelligent unprejudiced thinking. That will be sufficiently "positive" philosophy to guide any social studies teacher, even though it may occasionally leave room for difference of opinion between the teacher and his pupils and between some pupils and some other pupils.

R. O. HUGHES

Pittsburgh Public Schools

Notes and News

NCSS Board of Directors' Meeting

The Board of Directors of the National Council for the Social Studies met at the Hotel Pennsylvania, New York, on December 28-29, 1943.

Reports were given by President Allen Y. King, by the Executive Secretary and Treasurer, Merrill F. Hartshorn, and by the Editor of *Social Education*, Erling M. Hunt. These reports were discussed and accepted. Reports were also accepted from the standing committees on Audio-Visual Aids, Publications, Public Relations, and Curriculum.

Three new committees were created to deal with special areas of activity. These are: (1) a Committee on International Relations, which will have at least one representative from each of three of the standing committees on Civic Education, Curriculum, and Publications; (2) an ad hoc committee, created to explore the desirability of having the NCSS appoint a commission to prepare a manifesto on post-war social education as was done in the case of "The Social Studies Mobilize for Victory." This committee is empowered to advise on procedures to be followed and to consider means for implementing the manifesto when prepared; and (3) a Finance Committee of three members which will concern itself with two areas: first, the building of a revolving fund for the support of the NCSS publications and other worthy projects; and, second, the securing of special funds or grants for carrying out specific Council projects. The membership of these, as well as other committees, will be reported in *Social Education* as soon as the complement of all 1944 committees is completed.

Roy A. Price reported on the activities of the special committee on Pre-Induction Training in the Social Studies, and Edgar B. Wesley on the progress and work of the Committee on American History in the Schools and Colleges.

Some changes in membership of the Executive Board and the Advisory Board of *Social Education*, brought about by the expiration of the terms of former members, are reflected in the masthead of this issue of *Social Education*.

Some plans were made for holding meetings in 1944 and it is now expected that, by the time the next issue of *Social Education* appears, it will be possible to announce places and dates.

Because of pressure from other responsibilities, Allen Y. King resigned as President of the NCSS effective January 1, on the completion of a year in office. His resignation was accepted. There having been no official business meeting for the year 1943, the 1943 officers will hold over during 1944, as provided by special wartime-emergency action at the 1942 meeting. Under the provision of the Constitution, the First Vice-President, I. James Quillen, of Stanford University, succeeded Mr. King as President on January 1, and the Second Vice-President, Mary G. Kelty, of Washington, became First Vice-President.

The budget for the 1943-44 fiscal year was adopted by the Board of Directors. (M. F. H.)

From the Publications Committee

Your Committee is at present considering a proposal for the publication of a bulletin on the general subject of geography in the secondary school. The content is still tentative. It is still quite possible to consider suggestions from teachers. Here are some of the questions which will face the Publications Committee if publication should be approved:

1. Should the major portion of the bulletin be devoted to a detailed outline of units covering a year's course in geography?
2. Should the emphasis be upon social geography or economic geography, and should some physical geography be included?
3. Is it desirable to propose such units for any specific grade level?
4. What portion of the content should be devoted to reference lists and teaching aids?
5. Should the emphasis be upon the relating of geography to present courses in history and the social studies rather than upon geography as a separate subject?

Your suggestions and reactions will be welcome. Pick up your typewriter or your pen *right now* and send us a letter, a paragraph, even a postcard! We want the National Council publications to be helpful to you, but can make them so only if we hear what you want.

H. T. MORSE, Chairman

Committee on Publications, NCSS
University of Minnesota

New Contributing Members

Since the names were last listed in the December issue of *Social Education*, several additional

names have been added to the roll of Contributing Members of the National Council. These members have paid \$5 for their annual dues instead of the \$3 subscribing membership fee, although there are no differences in the privileges of such membership. The extra financial assistance is of great value to the Council in carrying out its program under wartime conditions. The following are new Contributing Members: R. O. Hughes, Ralph Adams Brown, Robert Gillingham, J. Pearce McMullen, I. James Quillen, Grace Markwell, O. L. Enstad, Howard E. Wilson, Lyman E. Edwards, Edward G. Olsen, and Bethania Tucker.

New England

At its first formally organized meeting held in Boston on December 4, the New England Association of Social Studies Teachers elected the following officers for 1944: Henry W. Bragdon, North Andover, Massachusetts, president; Mildred Ellis, Framingham, Massachusetts, vice-president; Kenneth A. Bernard, Boston, Massachusetts, secretary-treasurer.

In addition to the election of officers, the Association voted to act with Boston University as co-sponsor of the New England Junior Town Meeting of the Air project, and to co-operate in the Conference on Intercultural Education held at the Hotel Statler in Boston, January 15.

The Association will also issue a quarterly bulletin, which will be edited by Victor E. Pitkin of the Reading (Massachusetts) High School.

(K. A. B.)

New York State Council

The Seventh Annual Christmas Meeting of the New York State Council for the Social Studies was held in Syracuse on December 27, 1943. The morning session opened with a business meeting which was followed by a "Report of Progress on State Program and the Comprehensive Examination" with Mildred McChesney as speaker. There was extensive discussion of the State Program after presentation of the report. Another morning session consisted of a panel discussion led by Lloyd F. McIntyre, on "Effective Teaching Methods."

At the luncheon meeting M. Lyle Spencer, Syracuse University, spoke on "Democracy As We Live It." At the first afternoon session Harold M. Long gave a "Preview of the Report of the Committee on American History in the Schools and Colleges." At the final meeting of the day

A. B. Corey of St. Lawrence University spoke on "Canada's Critical Future." (R. A. P.)

History Teacher's Association of Maryland

The History Teacher's Association of Maryland met on November 19 in Baltimore. The following officers were elected: Harry Bard, Baltimore, president; Olive Simpson, Cumberland, vice-president; Frank Fairbank, Baltimore, secretary; and Gladys Hopkins, Towson, treasurer.

Douglas Ward of the Consumer Education Study of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, NEA, spoke on the activities of his group. Captain H. L. Dotson described the activities of army induction and reception centers, and the type of pre-induction training which social studies teachers might give to students who will soon enter the armed forces. A British film showing how the Army Bureau of Current Affairs teaches current events in army camps was presented. (F. F.)

Greater Cleveland Council

The Greater Cleveland Council of the Social Studies sponsored a "Conference on Intercultural Education" on December 2 in the auditorium of Cleveland's new Intercultural Library. The chairman of the panel was William H. Kilpatrick of Columbia University; the other members were Dilworth Lupton of the *Cleveland Press*; Jane Hunter of the Phyllis Wheatley Branch of the Y.W.C.A.; Frank Suhadolnik of the Intercultural Library; and Benjamin Sachs of the Central High School, Cleveland. (C. F.)

Metropolitan Detroit Social Studies Club

On January 29 the Metropolitan Detroit Social Studies Club held an all-day institute. A. Y. King, of Cleveland, opened the general morning session which was followed by a series of group discussions. At the luncheon meeting Edgar B. Wesley presented a report on the work of the Committee on American History in the Schools and Colleges. The meeting was attended by social studies teachers from Flint, Ann Arbor, Toledo, Port Huron, Windsor (Canada), and other nearby communities, as well as Detroit. (C. C. B.)

Meetings on the American History Report

Edgar B. Wesley, Director of the Committee on American History in the Schools and Colleges,

spoke before several social studies groups during the latter part of January on "The Case for Basic Essentials in American History." Dr. Wesley met with the Mahoning Valley Social Studies Council, including teachers of Youngstown, Ohio, and vicinity, on January 19; with teachers in Pittsburgh on January 20; and with the Social Studies Club of Philadelphia on January 21. On January 24 he met with the New Jersey Association of Social Studies Teachers at Newark; on January 25 at the Teachers College of Connecticut at New Britain; on January 26 at New Jersey State Teachers College at Trenton, and on January 29 with the Metropolitan Detroit Social Studies Club. With the exception of the last meeting at Detroit these meetings were arranged and sponsored by the National Council for the Social Studies through the office of its executive secretary.

Teaching Aids on Russia

The Soviet Union Today: An Outline Study, prepared by the staff of The American Russian Institute is a syllabus intended as a guide for discussion of the Soviet Union. The chapters cover the land and the people, the historical background, the government, the national economy, social services, culture, foreign relations, and the war. There are diagrams of the government, a map, questions for discussion, and references for further study. This book of 111 pages sells for \$1 and should be ordered from The American Russian Institute, 56 West 45th Street, New York. Ask for a free list of other publications on the U.S.S.R.

The February, 1944, issue of the *Survey Graphic* is devoted to the topic of "American Russian Frontiers: An Approach to Common Understanding," and contains a number of articles on various aspects of Russian life.

Soviet Russia: A Selected List of Recent References has been compiled by Helen F. Conover, Division of Bibliography, Library of Congress, Washington, includes books, pamphlets, and periodicals in English on the period from 1938 to the present great war effort.

Far East

Looking at the Far East is a unit for social studies classes in the junior and senior high schools of Dallas, Texas. The unit includes a study of global geography and air transportation; a brief study of the political, social, and economic condition of Japan, Indo-China, Thailand, Burma, the Philippines, Dutch East Indies; and

the concepts for a lasting peace. Each topic is covered by a summary discussion, a list of study questions, activities, and references. This 64-page unit may be purchased for 10 cents from the Board of Education, Dallas Public Schools.

Curriculum

Curriculum Development in the Social Studies (Kindergarten through Grade 9B) is the title of a progress report issued by the Board of Education of the City of New York, 110 Livingston Street, Brooklyn, New York. This bulletin of 120 pages reports the initial stage of a co-operative project in the building of a social studies curriculum which enlisted the widespread participation of the teaching staff. Sections deal with the basic considerations for a social studies program, objectives, suggestions for program organization and units of work, suggested activities, source materials, and selected references.

The Social Studies in Wisconsin Schools, prepared jointly by the State Department of Public Instruction and the State Wartime Studies Committee, Madison, Wisconsin, is a 32-page bulletin containing suggestions which should not be taken as dogmatic or definitive; rather they should stimulate over-all planning. Emphasis is placed upon taking a long-range view of the curriculum in the post-war world.

Part I: "The Introduction," deals with the matter of terminology and the need for a carefully planned twelve-year sequence in the social studies. Part II: "The Elementary School," analyzes the framework of the social studies in the elementary grades, examines trends, and makes some recommendations. It also contains a suggested sequence for the primary, intermediate, and upper-grade divisions with a discussion of correlation and evaluating outcomes. Part III: "The High School," discusses present weaknesses, suggests areas which should be covered, and suggests a framework for the high school. Part IV: "Selective Reading for Boys and Girls in the Twelve-Year Program," is a reading guide, keyed with reference to grade levels, and is arranged topically and annotated.

All social studies teachers and social studies organizations are invited to send in material for these columns. Send in notes on the activities of your school or organization and other items of general interest to social studies teachers. Mail your material as early as possible to Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary, National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington. Contributors to this issue include C. C. Barnes, Kenneth A. Bernard, Frank Fairbank, Clyde Feuchter, and Roy A. Price.

Pamphlets and Government Publications

Leonard B. Irwin

Current Affairs

The war is no respecter of standard geography textbooks, and is constantly flinging to the surface of the maelstrom of news a variety of geographic place names, conditions, and relationships with which the older sources of information cannot cope. New material on geography has been needed and has been appearing, and a guide to it is useful to the teacher or student. Such a guide is *The Geography of the War: A Bibliography*, by Richard B. Sealock (American Library Association, 520 Michigan Avenue, Chicago, 25 cents). This is a six-page pamphlet listing a number of the better and more recent books and pamphlets on the new geography. They are arranged topically, and each is accompanied by a brief descriptive comment.

Agricultural production represents one of the world's most pressing problems, both for the present and the future. The average citizen, at least in urban areas, knows little about it. A new Planning Pamphlet gives an unusually valuable summary of the whole national picture. It is *World Needs for U.S. Food and Fiber*, by John D. Black (National Planning Association, 800 Twenty-First Street, N.W., Washington, 50 cents). The pamphlet represents a report to the Agriculture Committee on National Policy of the National Planning Association. It gives an excellent and succinct analysis of the world needs for food and fiber crops, including changes brought about by the war, and on the basis of this analysis predicts how post-war conditions will affect American production of the various crops. The discussion is clear, nontechnical, and based upon definite figures. Especially valuable are the tables and graphs.

Public Attitudes Toward Subsidies, Prices, Wages and Salaries (National Opinion Research Center, University of Denver, 10 cents) is one of this organization's valuable public-opinion poll reports. The subject of the inquiries is clearly indicated in the title; the results of the questioning tend to show that most people want price and wage fixing, but do not understand the farm-subsidy issue.

War Savings Programs for Schools at War (Education Section, War Finance Division, U.S. Treasury Department, Washington. Free) has been prepared to supply dramatic material to schools planning to dramatize war bond campaigns. In addition to a bibliography of suitable plays, pageants, and so forth, the booklet contains six short plays in full.

Post-War Planning

A recent pamphlet of the National Resources Planning Board should have a heartening effect on many a history teacher who may occasionally feel that his work is of purely academic importance. It is encouraging to find the NRPB devoting an entire pamphlet to the history of demobilization after the First World War as a means of predicting probable trends after this one. The pamphlet is entitled *After the War—1918-1920* (Superintendent of Documents, Washington, 10 cents). It is very interesting reading; one can only hope that it will be read by those who most need to learn its lessons. To quote from the pamphlet, the first post-war era "was not a period to look back upon with fond remembrances nor to look forward from with high hopes." Most of the faults of human nature, released from the necessity of a common endeavor, came to the surface and played havoc with our economic life. This report indicates clearly that these same weaknesses, if allowed sway after this war, will be disastrous. The NRPB might do well to give this pamphlet greater distribution and publicity; human memory is notoriously short, especially concerning unpleasant things.

An appropriate complement to the previous pamphlet is *Reconversion of Industry to Peace* (National Planning Association, 800 Twenty-First Street, N.W., Washington, 25 cents). This is a report by officers of the Agriculture, Business and Labor Committees on National Policy of the Association. It consists of a series of specific recommendations for the procedure for reconverting industry to a peacetime basis. They are for the most part sensible and practical, and

appear to avoid the costly mistakes of 25 years ago. To read these two pamphlets, in the order mentioned here, will be a valuable exercise for teachers and businessmen alike.

After the War—What? by Preston Slosson (Houghton Mifflin, 2 Park Street, Boston, 56 cents) is a new text booklet, written by a noted historian. It is well done; no student is likely to find it dull. Mr. Slosson describes the problems which will arise with peace: the re-education of the enemy, fighting famine and pestilence, punishing the guilty, rebuilding world economic relationships, territorial readjustments, and collective security. He does not offer any elaborate or detailed plan for solving these problems, but he does make enough practical suggestions to stir the interest of the student and provoke further thought and discussion. The booklet is well illustrated with photographs and maps, and each chapter ends with some good questions for class consideration.

About Other Countries

To aid teachers and schools who are attempting to meet the present-day demand for more education about Latin America, the U.S. Office of Education has issued a pamphlet entitled *Inter-American Education: A Curriculum Guide*, by Effie G. Bathurst and Helen K. Mackintosh (Superintendent of Documents, Washington, 15 cents). As the title indicates, it consists of suggestions for introducing material on Latin America into school curricula. The suggestions are specific and are based chiefly on experiments made in actual school work.

The Pan American Union has brought out a series of ten booklets on various aspects of the life and history of Latin America. They are written for the elementary and junior high level, and may be bought from the Union at five cents each. The booklets are of 16 pages and are very attractive. The covers are in brilliant colors, the type is large, and there are numerous photographs. The subject matter of the series is of wide variety. There is one pamphlet on the Incas, and another on the Araucanians, giving an account of the history and customs of these early Indian populations. The history of Latin America is further covered by pamphlets on Francisco Pizarro, José de San Martín, and Cabeza de Vaca. The remaining booklets are: *The Pan American Union*, *The Panama Canal*, *The Snake Farm at Butantan*, *The Pan American Highway*, and *The Guano Islands of Peru*. The series should provide a useful and inexpensive

little library on Latin America for any school-room, and will undoubtedly be well received by the young readers for whom it is intended. Fifteen more booklets are planned for publication by the Union as part of the series.

What to Read About Russia: A List for Boys and Girls (East and West Association, 40 East 49th Street, New York, 10 cents) is the latest of this organization's helpful reading lists. The list was prepared by the New York Public Library, and Pearl Buck has provided a foreword. Most of the books chosen are in the form of fiction, though a few books of history and biography are included. The list should be especially useful to school librarians.

The latest Headline Series pamphlet is *Look at Africa*, by R. G. and M. S. Woolbert (Foreign Policy Association, 22 East 38th Street, New York, 25 cents). It is an excellent descriptive text for older students. Its opening chapter provides a brief history of the continent, emphasizing the steps in the partition of the land. Another chapter describes the topography and resources of Africa, while a third discusses future possibilities for the development of the continent. There is a chapter on the peoples, and another on the systems of government in each country or territory. A supplementary chapter by George W. Carpenter describes education in Africa today, and is of unusual interest because it is rarely discussed in most books on Africa. The booklet is well illustrated by charts and maps, and is easy to read and understand.

Miscellaneous

A History of Community Interest in a Juvenile Court, by Allan East (Oregon Probation Association, 66 N.W. Macleay, Portland, 50 cents) is an account of the growth of the juvenile court system in Multnomah County, Oregon, over a period of nearly sixty years. It offers a good case history of the problems of juvenile delinquency, and of what the citizens of a community can do to meet them.

New Tools for Learning (280 Madison Avenue, New York) has issued a new catalog of films, recordings, and pamphlets which should be of interest to social studies teachers. This organization combines the resources of four individual groups; the University of Chicago Round Table, the Public Affairs Committee, Inc., the New York University Film Library, and the Institute on Postwar Reconstruction. The catalog is particularly useful in its suggestions as to how the materials offered may be used most effectively.

Sight and Sound in Social Studies

William H. Hartley

Motion-Picture News

Write to the Division of Visual Aids, Office of Education, Washington, for a copy of *Bibliography of Visual Aids for Pre-Induction Training*. Although much of the material listed is too technical for use in social studies classes, several items will be found helpful.

As a guide to choosing one's own motion-picture fare or to help the busy teacher find films he can recommend to his students, one of the best of the critical listings is that by Ruth B. Hedges which is found in each issue of *National Parent-Teacher*. Films are listed according to age-level suitability and a brief and critical annotation is given. Listed as excellent in the January reviews are *The Battle for Russia*, *Madame Curie*, and *Jack London*.

The quality of the available film material on Latin America has long been a source of dismay to the teacher interested in interpreting this area to his pupils. A committee of investigators working with the Committee on the Study of Teaching Materials on Inter-American Subjects, established by the American Council on Education, found that one of the greatest weaknesses lay in the fact that of the twenty Latin-American countries only thirteen are treated in the films currently distributed to and used in schools of the United States. Moreover, the quality of material now available is extremely uneven. To remedy this situation, at least in part, the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs now has in production a series of films on Chile, Peru, Uruguay, Bolivia, and Paraguay. Among those shortly to be made available to schools are *Montevideo Family*, *Housing in Chile*, *Young Uruguay*, and *Feudal System in Bolivia*.

A catalog of *Films on Housing* has been issued by the National Housing Agency, Federal Public Housing Authority, Washington.

A catalog of "Slidefilms and Motion Pictures to Help Instructors" is available from the Jam Handy Organization, 2900 East Grand Boulevard, Detroit. The catalog lists 491 slidefilms and 44 educational motion pictures, indexed by titles and by teaching subjects. There is also a helpful section on projectors for visual aids.

The Bureau of Audio-Visual Aids, Extension Division, Indiana University, Bloomington, will send interested teachers a copy of their latest catalog, listing 992 film titles.

The Encyclopaedia Britannica Inc., now under the management of the University of Chicago, has recently announced the purchase of Erpi Classroom Films Inc., the largest producer and distributor of educational sound films.

Recent 16-mm Releases

British Information Services, 360 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago.

Desert Victory. 3 reels, sound; small service fee. Remarkable pictures of fighting in North Africa.

Office of War Information, Bureau of Motion Pictures, Washington. (Distributed through local film centers. Write to nearest film library.) Small service fee.

Day of Battle. 1 reel, sound. Life and death of aircraft carrier "Hornet."

Farmer at War. 1 reel, sound. Struggle of farmers to keep producing at full capacity.

Men and the Sea. 1 reel, sound. Training the men who man our cargo ships carrying food and supplies throughout the world.

Mission Accomplished. 1 reel, sound. Story of first all-American raid on Nazi Europe.

The Price of Victory. 1 reel, sound. Henry A. Wallace explains the ideals we are fighting for and the price we must pay for victory.

The Spirit of '43. 1 reel, sound. Donald Duck pays his taxes "to bury the Axis."

Three Cities. 1 reel, sound. Three typical American cities tackle the problem of wartime living.

Troop Train. 1 reel, sound. Moving the 201st Armored Division across the country.

When Work Is Done. 1 reel, sound. Influx of workers to American small towns in wartime.

Radio Notes

The Educational Script Exchange, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, has recently issued a new *Scripts for Victory Catalog*. Among the scripts now available to schools are eight originally broadcast in the *Cavalcade of America* and which deal with recent naval history. A great many schools have found these scripts valuable for school broadcasts and assembly programs.

Sponsored by the National Small Business Men's Association, the Mutual Network is presenting "Abe Lincoln's Story" each Sunday afternoon from 4:30 to 5:00 o'clock (EWT). Each

program in the series presents a complete episode.

The *America's Town Meeting of the Air* program has announced that eight high school students will be chosen during the current school year to appear on two of their Blue Network broadcasts. These "Junior Town Meetings" are sponsored by *Our Times*, a current-events publication for senior high school. Any high school boy or girl in the United States is eligible for a speaker's place on these programs. Students are recommended by their teachers. Any teacher may receive, free of charge, the topic of the broadcast, outlines and other information. For further details write to *Our Times*, American Education Press, Inc., 400 South Front Street, Columbus, Ohio.

Transcriptions

Transcripts for Victory is the latest catalog issued by the Script and Transcription Exchange, U.S. Office of Education, Washington. This catalog lists over 240 educational programs of immediate wartime significance. The programs are annotated to indicate their contents, grade level, and teaching applications for which they are best suited. Copies of the catalog will be sent upon request.

New Loan Packet

More and more social studies teachers are making use of the free loan packets circulated by the Information Exchange, U.S. Office of Education, Washington. Many different packets of material are now being sent to schools for two-week periods. The most recent of these packets, No. IX-G-9, *Pan American Student Clubs* completes a series of nine packets on Latin America. These packets contain pamphlets, posters, plays, songs, and other valuable classroom materials. Since franked labels requiring no postage are furnished for the return of the packet, there is no cost whatsoever to the school. A catalog listing 60 additional titles of packets on a wide range of subjects is available upon request.

Charts for Pre-Induction Orientation

Teachers faced with the task of preparing high school students for service in the armed forces should not overlook the many valuable charts which are available for this purpose. More than any other aid charts bring home the interrelationships, opportunities, and complexities of army organization. From the U.S. Office of Education, Washington, teachers may obtain the following charts: "Corps of Military Police," "Medical De-

partment," "Signal Corps," "26 Job Opportunities in the Army Air Forces." From National Geographic, Washington, may be had "Insignia of the U.S. Armed Forces." Probably most valuable of all for pre-induction orientation is "The Organization of the Army" a chart distributed by the Office of Civilian Defense, Washington.

Maps

A free map of the United States, 18 x 22 inches in size, may be had from C. J. Collins, Union Pacific Railroad, Omaha, Nebraska.

Pictures

The Ferris historical pictures, familiar to many teachers of American history, are now being featured on the covers of *The Grade Teacher* magazine. They are soon to be made available in miniature size for classroom use. For further information write the *Grade Teacher*, Darien, Connecticut.

Picture Collection is the title of the standard book of picture sources published by the H. W. Wilson Co., 950 University Avenue, New York. The fifth edition of this work is now available for \$1.25.

Helpful Articles

Avery, Faith B. "Our Sister Continent," *The Grade Teacher*, LXI:42-43, 56, January, 1944. Suggestions for a unit on South America with many suggestions for activities.

Bathurst, Effie G. "Phonograph Records as Aids to Learning," *Journal of Education Psychology*, XXXIV:385-406, December, 1943. A report on a project in the production and trial of phonograph records in rural schools.

Farber, Manny. "Movies in Wartime," *The New Republic*, CX:16-20, January 3, 1944. Criticizes war films as overly melodramatic. Points to censorship of movies as one cause of their lack of depth.

Gale, Ann. "The Post-War World—In Hand Made Lantern Slides," *Educational Screen*, XXII:387, December, 1943. A series of six drawings to be traced on lantern slides.

Haley, Emilie. "Recordings for Classroom Use," *Progressive Education*, XX:363, 398, December, 1943. Records and rules for their use.

Hellmer, Joseph R. "Radio and the Americas," *The Inter-American*, III:40, January, 1944. Comments upon and lists short-wave programs of note from Latin American.

Hunt, Maurice P. "Visual and Other Aids," *Social Studies*, XXXIV:366-367, December, 1944. A list of business organizations from which films and other materials may be obtained.

Lewin, William. "Photoplays for International Understanding," *Educational Screen*, XXII:388, 390, December, 1943. Current theatrical productions are analyzed for their contribution to international understanding.

Whitton, John B. "Radio After the War," *Foreign Affairs*, XXII:309-318, January, 1944. How can radio be controlled in the post-war world and used for the promotion of good will?

Book Reviews

UNITED WE STAND: THE PEOPLES OF THE UNITED NATIONS. By Basil Mathews. Boston: Little Brown, 1943. Pp. xiii, 366. \$2.50.

LEGENDS OF THE UNITED NATIONS. By Frances Frost. New York: Whittlesey House (McGraw-Hill), 1943. Pp. viii, 323. \$2.50.

Both of these books are designed to increase appreciation of the peoples of the United Nations. Neither is directly a war book and neither is designed to be used as a text. The Frost book, made up of stories, would appeal to younger students, and hardened old graduate students would also enjoy it. The Mathews book assumes that the reader already has considerable factual background. Aside from the real human interest, these books provide a welcome variation from the daily war news and military chronicles.

In *Legends of the United Nations*, Frances Frost presents stories from sixteen of the United Nations. The selection of fairy stories, folk stories, or legends—call them what you will—make refreshing reading. There is a tone in folk stories that voices the basic desires of the human race. In the end the wicked are punished and the generous and wise are eventually rewarded. There is supernatural intervention by gods, fairies, and sometimes witches in the fumbling muddling efforts of man. It is startling how similar these qualities are whether the story is of "Teposton" of Mexico, "The Gods Know" of China, or "Saint Stanislaw and the Wolf" of Poland. "The Magic Lamp" from India has the same idea as the more familiar "Aladdin's Lamp."

It is significant that among the so-called primitive peoples that legends and stories are a chief means of transmitting the traditions and spiritual values of a people from generation to generation. "The Flying Ship" from Russia stresses doing the impossible. "Dick Whittington and His Cat" plays up the sturdy British qualities of work, loyalty, and perseverance. The author selected for the United States "Johnny Appleseed," "Paul Bunyan," "The Creation of Man" (Indian), and "How Br'er Wasp Got His Small Waist." This whole group of stories has educational value in building attitudes of understanding and good will that must come if we are to have a better world in the years to come.

Mr. Mathews' book is also directed toward increasing international understanding and making

a better world. The introductory chapter describes how the ship's captains in a United Nations convoy are instructed so that all of them work together and understand exactly what needs to be done. These ships from many lands cross the ocean safely and deliver their precious cargoes. The preface declares, "The aim of this book is to interpret all the United Nations to each other and especially to the people of America." Mr. Mathews, an Oxford University graduate, has had wide experience as a newspaper man, officer in the British Ministry of Information, worker in youth movements, and close observer in Geneva of the work of the League of Nations. His varied activities have made him an internationalist and an enthusiastic publicist for a better world order.

The scope of topics includes valuable and necessary background in world politics and cultural affairs. He does not delve very much into economic problems as such. Major emphasis is given to problems of colonial government and self-rule, racial problems, minorities, and the possibility and necessity for co-operation now and in the future. Mr. Mathews knows how to write and keep the reader's interest. One appreciates the very great difficulties in selecting and balancing the material for a book such as this. Mr. Mathews has included a tremendous variety and number of topics. The majority of items are not a mere repetition of material often given in newspapers and magazines. The chapters on the "United Kingdom," "India and Colonial Peoples," "Russia's Lightning Transformation," "Our Neighbor Russia," and the three chapters on China are especially stimulating and helpful. The treatment on the Americas is briefer and does not include some essential material.

Mr. Mathews gives a quotation from Sir Stafford Cripps that expresses the moving spirit of the entire book: "We may make the most careful plans, work out the most detailed methods, call in the help of scientists, economists and politicians, but all this will be of no avail unless there is in the peoples of all nations a determination to succeed, a spirit of co-operation and of ruthless insistence that we shall make the common good of humanity the overriding inspiration of politics."

JULIA EMERY

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THE UNITED STATES AND ITS PLACE IN WORLD AFFAIRS, 1918-1943. Edited by Allan Nevins and Louis M. Hacker. Boston: Heath, 1943. Pp. x, 612. \$3.25.

This book will be appreciated by school and college teachers who have found it a heavy task to understand and present the problems and circumstances which the United States has encountered since the First World War. This book is significant for a number of reasons: for its completeness, for expertness of editing and authorship, and as an example of the high quality of contribution students of social matters are making in the present urgency. Incidentally there is something reassuring in the willingness, implicit in this volume, of the social specialists to rest their case upon a sober presentation of facts, an attitude less in evidence among such specialists during the First World War.

The idea of this book originated with the Contemporary Civilization staff of Columbia College, but its projectors obtained counsel from diverse viewpoints and from other parts of the country. The editors explain in the preface that "the plan of this book was carefully elaborated before a single word was committed to paper." The end result justifies these preliminary pains. Its range and completeness are demonstrated by its principal divisions which cover: democracy and revolutionary ideologies (two chapters), a survey of western Europe from 1914 to the great depression (six chapters), the domestic and international position of the United States during the 1920's (five chapters), Europe's descent into international anarchy (four chapters), eastern Europe between two wars (two chapters), rivalries in the Far East (two chapters), the United States from the depression to the Second World War (seven chapters), and mobilization for defense and war (two chapters). Two chapters on "what lies ahead" comprise a final section.

This book refutes the old charge that each social discipline ignores the work and viewpoints of the others. Of the fourteen contributors six are described as historians, five as economists, one as economic historian, and two as specialists in government or international relations. Of the forty chapters Professor A. L. Burt contributes nine, Professor Hacker six, Professor Heaton eight, while Professors Basch, Bossenbrook, Crothers, Fitch, Griswold, Mendenhall, Miner, Nevins, Peffer, Stanfield, and Taylor contribute one or two each.

The collaborators have been notably successful in the difficult but important business of present-

ing intangible factors such as popular convictions, predilections, feelings, and concepts of Americans as well as of others. They deserve the gratitude of teachers and students for frequent use of sharp "one-two-three" type analysis. Open the volume to almost any page and one will find vivid, concise writing. Frequent chapter sub-headings have evidently encouraged crispness of style. Less able craftsmen would have been overwhelmed by the sheer mass of facts and topics which are conveniently accommodated in this innocently slender book. One should allow adequate time to realize the instructional possibilities of the book, perhaps a college quarter or semester. As a handbook for high school teachers *The United States and its Place in World Affairs 1918-1943* should be invaluable. Fourteen black and white maps, brief but carefully selected suggestions for further reading, and an index will enhance the utility of the book.

RICHARD L. POWER

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TOWARDS A BETTER WORLD. By H. G. Hix, W. T. Kingsbury, T. G. Reed. New York: Scribner, 1943. Pp. xi, 500. Appendix. \$1.80.

Towards A Better World is a textbook for the eighth and ninth grades presenting a unified-type organization with emphasis on learning by doing. Not only does it describe the attitudes and skills of democratic citizenship; it also explains at length ways in which to practice democracy at school and in ordinary out-of-school social relationships.

The opening section of this text traces the historical backgrounds of democracy as a way of life. For the most part this is well done through the use of summarizing sentences and generalizations supported by refreshing illustrative details. Only in a few spots is there serious oversimplification of the narrative.

The second section of the book, written in an intimate style, employs both out-of-school experiences of youth and historical illustrations to make clear the role of education in the development of democratic citizenship. Chapters 8 through 13, comprising the third section of the book, deal with the basic drives of individuals in a democracy as these drives apply to the solution of problems arising in everyday social relationships. Chapters in this section are characterized by excellent introductory stories which with one exception are very well adapted to the interests and experiences of junior high school

pupils and which illustrate very forcibly the understandings to be developed in the respective chapters.

The last section of this well-organized book opens with chapters which explain with more than ordinary success the role played by personal attitudes, habits, and drives in the practice of truly democratic citizenship. Similarly the concluding chapter provides guidance and inspiration for the expression of one's best in terms of personality and group life. But the two intervening chapters, in which the authors attempt to describe the essentials of our governmental and economic systems, are so sketchy as to make very questionable their usefulness as anything more than mere outlines. These constitute unfortunate exceptions to a book which otherwise is to be commended not only for developing significant patterns of thought but even more for providing practice in the application of those patterns as the study progresses.

The bibliographies in *Toward A Better World* offer a wide choice of titles but are without benefit of classification either as to level of use or type of content. The illustrations, consisting for the most part of photographs showing high school youth engaged in typical activities, are well documented only in part. The learning activities provided by the authors as an integral part of each chapter cover a wide range of interests with some suggestions decidedly more practical than others.

KENNETH B. THURSTON

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PRINCIPLES OF ANTHROPOLOGY. By Eliot Dismore Chapple and Carleton Stevens Coon. New York: Holt, 1942. Pp. viii, 718. \$3.75.

This pioneering work undertakes to set forth "principles of anthropology as we know them in the year 1942," in a manner that would bridge the gap between the "functional" and "historical" schools of anthropologists. The key to the study lies in the observation of the physical properties of the human organism. Basically, the authors appear to follow the "functional" approach, and then seek to build a connection to the "historical" approach through modifying the functionalist approach by means of various operational procedures, and the use of time as a factor in human relations. Our examination of the text persuades us that the work is so much

more "functional" than "historical" in treatment that it is more useful to sociology than it is to history.

The authors follow the operational method that is used in "other natural sciences." They assume that man, for their purposes, is an organism, and that the adjustment of one human individual to others can be explained in terms of known facts in physiology. In their presentation of the materials, they make use of a number of interesting and instructive maps and figures which add greatly to the value of the textbook.

What historians owe to the anthropologists is incalculable. But we wonder, when considering a work of this kind, whether the anthropologists are not still falling far short of their possibilities. Armed as they are, presumably, with an approach which deals with cultures as wholes, we wonder how much longer the anthropologists will continue to avoid the problem of classifying the cultures of mankind. Faced as we all are with the necessity of getting a scientific perspective of the cultures of the world, are not the anthropologists the persons to approach for help in pointing out, in terms of the individual cultures themselves, the natural order which obtains among them, in the entire field of cultures? The layman is still left in a welter of data, piled heap upon heap by endless analysis, and really needs a synthesis by which he can thread his way among cultures. Is it too much to hope for a textbook on anthropology that is based upon an ordered arrangement of the phenomena of cultures as wholes, as fixed by criteria which are actual basic similarities and basic differences in the unitary cultures themselves?

The authors say ". . . anthropology alone provides a common meeting ground for all of the different subjects which have, in the past, dealt with human relations" (p. iv). This indeed is a very broad statement, when it is borne in mind that the authors place the burden of their interpretations upon the human organism's physical properties. In our opinion it will require a different kind of anthropology than here presented to be able "alone" to provide the common meeting ground. If what is aimed at is a definitive synthesis of all disciplines in a science of human relations, it fails to recognize and utilize the integrity of human cultures as wholes; failing this, individual cultures are not in a position favorably to present their most telling and direct contributions toward the great problem of human relations. A people's concepts, philosophy, and religion which interpret human re-

lations for them, are no less "natural" than their "organisms" are natural.

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MOBILIZING EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES FOR WINNING THE WAR AND THE PEACE. (Sixth Yearbook of the John Dewey Society.) By Ernest O. Melby, editor, Harold Benjamin, Kenneth Benne, Theodore Brameld, George S. Counts, Harold Hand, William H. Kilpatrick, and John K. Norton. New York: Harper, 1943. Pp. 242. \$2.50.

Although this volume contains some penetrating and constructive observations and proposals on the role of education in helping to win the war, it is more valuable for the contributions it makes to ways and means by which educational resources may be effectively mobilized for winning the peace. So many books have lately appeared on this subject that one takes up each new one wondering a bit what it can possibly add to others he has already read. This book is in many ways exceptional, and deserves wide and thoughtful reading.

The volume should be of interest to teachers of the social studies for several reasons. Younger teachers, desirous of informing themselves quickly and pleasantly regarding the main features in the relations between education on the one hand, and, on the other, five or six important social issues, will search long for better brief essays on these subjects than those in this volume. The interrelations of education and business, labor, racial and minority groups, and changing patterns of economic and governmental organization are explored competently in succinct, readable essays. Both younger and older teachers of the social studies who are searching for a more satisfying educational philosophy will find this volume stimulating and constructive. The essays in this field by Professor Counts and Professor Brameld are especially admirable and should be widely read and pondered.

The volume is even more significant, however, in the contribution it makes to the problem of educational engineering in America, in relation to a democratic peace. The authors are fully aware that in the modern world efficient, directive power is as necessary in education as in other aspects of life. But they are also rightly concerned with ways and means for checking concentration

of educational power, especially in the federal arena. Thus while they believe that federal support and leadership in education are necessary and valuable, they are at pains to suggest concrete ways by which this may be achieved without sacrificing the local interest in education. Indeed, they insist that local interest in education must be far more dynamic and democratic than it has ever been, and they suggest machinery for making it so, or at least, for helping in that direction. Whether or not one agrees with all the details suggested for the more effective participation of both the educational profession and *all* lay groups in the educational enterprise, one can have only praise for the specific and constructive ways in which the writers approach the problem.

The final essay by Professor Counts draws together earlier suggestions and makes explicit many implications. With proper humility he proposes a blueprint, which includes the establishment, on the basis of existing professional educational organizations, of a new educational congress or parliament, designed to provide democratic leadership to the profession and to make possible an effective liaison with government and with lay participation in education. This is to be achieved through the establishment of a new federal agency, truly representative of the American people, and endowed with functions comparable to those of other leading federal agencies. Professor Counts also proposes the establishment of a new international educational organization. His essay is educational statesmanship at its best.

It is a commonplace, of course, that the social studies teacher cannot deal adequately with either the methods or the subject matter of the social disciplines without reference to the larger problems of the educational profession, especially its relationships to society. For this reason the Sixth Yearbook of the John Dewey Society should not be overlooked by social studies teachers.

MERLE CURTI

University of Wisconsin

YOUTH AND INSTRUCTION IN MARRIAGE AND FAMILY LIVING. By Laura W. Drummond. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942. Pp. ix, 186. \$2.35.

What do young men and women believe to be important questions for consideration in education for marriage and family living? In this spe-

cial study the author seeks to discover these interests through the sampling technique and by an analysis of statistical data. She defines the problem thus: "To ascertain what certain undergraduate students (freshmen and seniors) and alumni of two Pennsylvania colleges consider important material in instruction on marriage and the family, and to suggest some implications of the findings in education for marriage and family living." When distributed among categories, the suggestions of students give some indication of major areas of concern. Ranked in descending order of frequency, we find sex; premarriage problems, such as dating, courtship, and choice of mate; accord in marriage and family relationships; family economics; child guidance; the role of children in the family; adjustments between generations; family discord; religion in family living; and the family as a social institution.

Instruction on the neglected subject of sex seems highly desired, as about one suggestion out of every four responses deals with this topic. Pre-marriage problems rank second, while little interest is shown in pedantic discussions of social theory, family disorganization, or in the history of the family. The demand for a realistic and a positive approach to specific problems stands paramount—what kind of person shall I marry, and how can satisfactory adjustments be made between husband and wife?

Because of significant variations in the responses of the students in the two colleges, "no single outline or course of study will meet the needs of different groups with equal effectiveness," concludes the author. One also finds, as an outstanding implication in training youth for marriage and family living, the necessity of drawing upon the resources of many fields, as problems dealing with life experiences cannot be solved adequately by one single discipline. Another important landmark will be attained when personal counseling and psychiatric service are provided to aid young people with individual conflicts and personal problems.

If, as shown clearly in this study, the trend points to a desirability for functional instruction in marriage and family living, curriculum planners may profitably secure the aid and advice of young people themselves in setting up suitable criteria. Miss Drummond has pointed the way by blazing an important trail.

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CO-OPERATIVE EFFORT IN SCHOOLS TO IMPROVE READING. Edited by William S. Gray. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 56. Chicago: University of Chicago, 1942. Pp. xi, 338. \$2.00.

BOOKS AND LIBRARY READING FOR PUPILS OF THE INTERMEDIATE GRADES. By Evangeline Colburn. Publications of the Laboratory Schools, No. 10. Chicago: University of Chicago, 1942. Pp. viii, 167. \$1.50.

Co-operative Effort in Schools to Improve Reading is issued as the proceedings of the 1942 Reading Conference at the University of Chicago and volume four in that series of publications. Unlike earlier conferences which sought new conceptions of reading and frontier proposals for organizing such programs, the 1942 meetings focused upon methods of implementing our present knowledge about reading in order to achieve needed improvement as soon as possible. The result is a most helpful volume, equally useful to teachers, administrators, and school librarians from the primary grades through the junior college years.

Attention centers on the need and possibilities for developing a continuous and co-ordinated reading program throughout the school system with the co-operation of all faculty members—not just the teachers of reading or English. The eight sections treat: broader ends to be attained through reading; issues relating to the scope and organization of adequate reading programs; techniques for appraising present programs with discussion of progress in selected schools; reading materials as well as co-operative techniques for the selection of them; principles of learning underlying the use of reading materials and illustrative units; issues concerning the teaching of reading; evaluation; and the responsibilities and opportunities for various staff members. Applications to the different grade levels are discussed in separate chapters under each section.

The fact that the forty-one contributors are dealing constantly with problems of reading or the administration of reading programs in schools and colleges insures a realistic, practical approach. Social studies teachers will find throughout the volume many implications for their part in a reading-improvement program as well as some chapters dealing specifically with specialized problems in the social studies area.

The 1942 monograph by Miss Colburn will prove as stimulating to teachers and librarians in elementary schools as did her 1930 publication

describing the organization, procedures, and methods used in guiding the voluntary reading of pupils in Grades 4, 5, and 6 at the University Elementary School. Her recent work both complements and supplements the earlier one. It is complementary to the extent that the introductory discussion stresses ways in which reading may enrich classroom experience in the social studies and other areas. Suggestions are included also for training children in the use of books and libraries and for stimulating interest in voluntary reading. It is likewise supplementary since the body of the volume consists of an annotated list of about 650 recent book titles.

Some books are grouped by subject as "The Americas" including North, Central, and South America, "Other Lands and Other Peoples," and "Science, Industry, Invention." Others are by kind of literature—"Biography" and "Fairy Tales and Legends." One category entitled "Art, Music, and Poetry" combines subject and form. One section lists the special-award books and a final division suggests titles for nonreaders and remedial cases. The inclusion of author and title indexes lessens somewhat the confusion bound to result for the reader from an organization of this kind when no cross references are used.

Annotations consist usually of several sentences descriptive of content, the grade range for which the book is recommended, and comment upon any outstanding feature as format or suitability for reading aloud. As brief criticisms the annotations are adequate.

The selections taken as a whole are well rounded although it is difficult to understand the recommendations and omissions in some of the sections such as "World History and Exploration" and "Biography."

Literate citizens with an inquiring attitude and the ability to use independently and effectively every aid to learning are necessary to our country in peace or at war. Both monographs supply helpful suggestions for preparing our young citizens for the immeasurable responsibilities in the world which will be their heritage during the coming decades.

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APPRAISING AND RECORDING STUDENT PROGRESS.
Volume 3, Adventure in American Education.
By Eugene R. Smith, Ralph W. Tyler, and the
Evaluation Staff. New York: Harper, 1942.
Pp. xxiii, 550. \$3.00.

In the volume on *Appraising and Recording Student Progress*, members of the Evaluation

Staff of the Eight-Year Study discuss (1) how evaluation programs were developed in the co-operating schools, (2) what evaluation instruments were developed, and (3) what uses were made of the evaluation data. Many reviewers have already argued that this book should be required reading for school administrators, supervisors, curriculum and research workers, and students in tests and measurements. With that opinion this reviewer agrees. He will therefore limit himself to a consideration of benefits that classroom teachers of social studies may derive from reading the book.

Doubtless social studies teachers should ponder the suggestions in Chapters I and VIII for developing an inclusive and valid program of evaluation. Even though evaluation instruments of the kind discussed in this volume are designed to appraise behavior patterns in broad areas—namely (1) aspects of thinking, (2) social sensitivity, (3) appreciation, (4) interests, (5) personal and social adjustment—which are not the exclusive responsibility of a given department, social studies teachers will be especially interested in the discussion of numbers 1, 2, and 4 (Chapters II, III, and V). Chapter VII, "Interpretation and Uses of Evaluation Data," contains a variety of illustrations and suggestions that teachers will find especially helpful.

It is interesting to speculate on how the behavior patterns of social studies teachers who read the chapters mentioned in the last paragraph may be modified. From their reading they should have acquired (1) a better understanding of the purpose and scope of an adequate evaluation program, (2) a knowledge of certain evaluation instruments developed in the Eight-Year Study and the purposes for which they can be used, and (3) an appreciation of how evaluation data should be used in the guidance of pupils. About all this reviewer would predict in the way of changed behavior is, however, that many teacher-readers will give one or another of the P.E.A. tests to their pupils and will make better use of the information derived from results on these and other tests. And that certainly will be to the good!

In general, classroom teachers certainly cannot be expected to develop evaluation programs of the kind described in this volume. Quite obviously they lack the necessary time, ability, and expert supervision. In most cases teachers probably should be advised to formulate carefully the objectives sought by their school, and to choose from published tests and evaluation instruments those which best meet their needs.

In using a given test, whether published or of

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his own construction, a teacher naturally will wonder whether it accurately measures what it purports to measure. From that point of view this reviewer wishes to raise certain questions about the P.E.A. tests. (1) Some of the tests discussed seem complicated (for example, 5.21 Nature of Proof, 5.31 Analysis of Controversial Writing, 1.41 Social Problems, and 1.5 Applying Social Facts and Generalizations to Social Problems). At what grade levels can these and other P.E.A. tests be used? (2) Because the responses expected of pupils who take the tests just mentioned are so complicated, one wonders what correlation these and other P.E.A. tests have with tests of general intelligence. (3) Having done some experimental work with so-called attitude scales, this reviewer wonders what tests 4.21 and 4.31, Beliefs on Social Issues, really measure. This question is considered by the authors (pp. 225 ff.) but their general conclusion is that the tests are valid. One may wonder whether the fact that pupils react the same on the tests and in interviews is conclusive (p. 227). And it is difficult to interpret the statement (p. 228) that "over 90 per cent of the judgments of the teachers coincided with the test ratings." What is the precise meaning of the term "coincided"?

But these "doubts" should not keep a teacher from using the P.E.A. tests. If he uses them perhaps he can answer the questions for himself.

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RADIO NETWORKS AND THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT.

By Thomas Porter Robinson. New York: Columbia University Press, 1943. Pp. 278. \$3.50.

Some day the cultural, educational, and social possibilities of radio may be fully realized. Like a will-o'-the-wisp, the radio as a great force in American life beckons the educator, the student of public affairs, and the socially minded citizen, but to date it has remained a phantom hope never quite realized. That this has been true is due in large measure to the fact that radio has developed in "the American Way" of free enterprise with its very existence depending upon commercially financed broadcasting; a pattern of business which must provide entertainment for the masses or collapse. This pattern has not been without its critics. There are those who feel that a tax-supported radio modeled after the European pattern would result in a more vigorous,

more enlightening, and more hopeful radio fare. A review of the development of the American radio industry quickly dispels the possibility of any sudden about-face in the conduct of our broadcasting business.

Thomas Porter Robinson in his *Radio Networks and the Federal Government* has provided the serious reader with a comprehensive history of the growth of network broadcasting in our country. More particularly he traces the campaigns and skirmishes which have taken place between the network industry and the Federal Communication Commission in the legal battle over the fundamental issues involved in the most efficient use of broadcasting facilities in the public interest. To the student of American economic history this volume is especially valuable since it provides a splendid example of how, in the short space of a quarter century, a great American industry passed from laissez-faire to strict government control. Here is an industry which runs the gamut of high finance, combination, suspected monopoly, public pressure, and governmental regulation in such rapid succession that every step in the process is highlighted to a brilliance which makes trends and national policies stand out in bold relief.

To many readers the first chapter will prove a real joy, for here is lucidly presented the fascinating story of the development of radio from a studio in a small garage (KDKA) to the great national networks of today. In sharp contrast to later portions of the book which delve into some rather murky technicalities, this first chapter on the "Early History of Broadcasting" and the succeeding chapter on "National Network Companies" present a clear, easily read treatment on the history of radio. It could be read with profit and pleasure by high school students.

The bulk of the work deals with the story of the relationship between the Federal Communication Commission and the National Broadcasting Company. Most of the evidence is taken from the Senate Interstate Commerce Committee hearings, Federal Communication Commission hearings, and FCC reports. There seemed to be little attempt to bring to the reader the points of view of political economists or other experts who have studied the problem at hand. The conclusions are peculiarly the author's own. This makes for a positiveness in the writing, but at times causes the reader to question the sharpness of the conclusions. Then, too, in the consideration of "Radio Censorship and Free Speech" (Ch. 7) it seems deplorable that the problem was viewed only from the standpoint of radio and not in the light of the development of this same problem in

connection with press and the forensic platform.

The author's conclusions will be of importance to every person interested in the shape of things to come in the field of radio. Says he, "The real answer to the competitive problem in the chain broadcasting field, as the Report itself implies, is a greater available supply of frequencies for commercial broadcasting which in turn would result in a greater number of national networks" (p. 213). Out of the mass of evidence turned up by the FCC, the author believes there have emerged four principles which will be basic to any system that is devised. First, "Advertising should continue to be the major means of financing broadcasts"; second, "It is in the public interest to continue to have both individual stations and networks"; third, "Government assignment of frequencies and power is necessary"; and last, "The public interest demands government regulation of broadcasting."

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